

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.
SERIES THE THIRD.

Vol. XXIII.

No. V.

ART. I.—*Homeri Carmina, cum brevi Annotatione. Accedunt variae Lectiones et Observationes veterum Grammaticorum, cum nostrae Aetatis critica, curante C. G. Heyne.*
VIII. T. 1802.

THE circumstance of submitting to their perusal a review of a work published nine years since, may appear to our readers either to imply former neglect; or to shew present inattention to publications of more recent date. Under this apprehension, we think it our duty to offer them as an apology, the reasons which now peremptorily induce us to bring Heyne's Homer forth to notice.

The state of blockade in which we are placed in regard to the continent, the difficulty of any importation from thence, and the impossibility of speedy communication, particularly in such articles as books, whose weight prevents facility of smuggling, and whose texture is subject to the worst effects from damp stowage, have materially affected the market. Hence it is, that the results of war have raised foreign publications, especially editions of the classics, to an enormous expence; an expence, in many instances, much more than doubling the original cost. There are many scholars who feel this a grievous inconvenience; and the motive of others to the desire of a return of peace, is as much enhanced by the hopes of embracing again their Heynes, Schweighœusers, and Schneiders, as of lessening the national debt. We venture

APP. Vol. 23.

F F

however to predict, that these gentlemen at the return of peace will find themselves disappointed; for not only will foreign books never deprectate here, while there are importers to cater, and collectors to purchase; but even abroad, the affectation of classical literature is so widely spread, that a few years give respectable age to a volume; and, from a French prized catalogue of the present year now before us, we can aver that many books are purchased abroad nearly as extravagantly as they are in England.

While therefore our contemporaries in general consider the present an inauspicious season for the prosecution of their classical pursuits, we are inclined to adopt the paradox, that the present is the most prosperous opening to the cultivation of classical talent. For at no time was there so decided a stimulus to the publication in our own country of those works, in which there is no longer danger of our being undersold on the continent. The fairest competition of excellence is offered; and the best opportunity is opened of proclaiming to the world that we can criticize, arrange, correct, supply, and print, with as much *acumen*, method, and steadiness, as the Dutch and Germans. A sufficient area spontaneously develops itself to us, in which we may display our taste: the most timid reckoner may compute that the productions of his labour can be no longer pirated abroad, and introduced into this country at half price on ballad paper. Lest to our own exertions in arms, we are equally so in literature: the season is glorious; let us hail it unanimously; let Cambridge follow the examples already proposed to her by Oxford, till the literary tone vibrates at the extremity of the empire.

The Germano-mania notwithstanding (if we may so express ourselves) the prejudice in favour of Hanoverian foreigners, of whom Heyne is one; a prejudice, in all its bearings, baneful to the English; and an apprehension also, that British manufacture may not suit British palates, are still to be combated. To do this with effect, we think it a patriotic as well as a literary plan to shew the general insufficiency, the tedious ponderosity, and the utter want of taste exhibited by modern commentators abroad. Shall we stop here? or add their peculating *charlatanerie*; and the irreligious tendency of their insinuations, developed in those works, which are intended by them as instruments of instruction. To substantiate this charge on Heyne, it is only necessary to refer the reader to Warton's note on the Messiah of Pope; wherein the wary doctor thinks fit

to cite Heyne's opinions on prophecy in Heyne's own dog Latin! After this exhibition, and the testimony of his own senses, it is surprising that so cultivated a genius should follow the stream, and bepraise so vile a commentator. The opinions we have started apply to more than one individual; and we could let in the flood of criticism on more recent heaps of muck than that which stands at present foremost in the Augean stable. After the removal of this, the rest will swim away imperceptibly; or, to drop the metaphor, we cannot begin better than by supplying a defect in our late series, and reviewing Heyne, the Trisler of Germany, who assisted by oafs more dense than himself has ravaged classical literature with the barbarism of an Attila or an Omar.

We shall chiefly in this review, which we consider introductory to a diatribe on that class of German criticisms, which fall in with our department, keep our eye more steadily on Heyne than Homer. It is our wish to bring his attainments, and his faults before the public; and thus to stimulate our learned countrymen to endeavours of editing, and enriching with their own annotations those works of the ancients, which are most approved; but to the obtaining of which the present purchase money is an almost insurmountable difficulty. This can easily be effected, by shewing them how few obstacles there are in the path to fame, when they have so feeble an antagonist to conquer. They hold him alas! in too great estimation.

* Ille operum custos: illum admirantur: et omnes
Circumstant fremitu denso: stipantque frequentes:
Et stepe attollunt humeris.

We wish them to throw him off their shoulders, to take the pen into their own hands, and to rescue the ancients from the second darkness which seems prepared to encompass them.

While, however, our opinion of Heyne has been thus generally and undisguisedly defined, we are far from asserting that the continent has not during the last century produced several scholars of high merit and abilities; or that there remain none at present, who uphold literature and adorn it. The labours and the erudition of the Burman's are not forgotten; the critical sagacity of Valckenaer, and the laborious efforts of the poor and occasionally careless Reiske; the '*facultas intelligentiæ*' of Rhunkean, (as Wyttenbach, in his life, p. 216, designates his

talent) the blunt scholarship of the disingenuous Brunck, whom for many reasons we frequently disapprove (though not inclined to maintain the principles of all his adversaries) the more modern labours of Harles and Herman, call for no small meed of praise. We will venture to say that France has produced of late only one Greek scholar of eminence: and he was able to break a lance even with Porson. It is hardly necessary that we should mention the name of Villoison. The above list we do not intend, by any means, as including *all* Scholarlike editors on the continent: but as commemorative of some of the most learned of them; and as an additional argument to prove, what from our feelings towards Heyne, might be petulantly objected to us, that we are not biassed against genius from any consideration of the atmosphere under which it may germinate.

Amongst the most voluminous critics of former days, not even excepting Burman, where Burman's own efforts in annotation are considered, there are few whose painstaking and labour excel those of our commentator. If the faculty of writing a given number of yards square notes in a given time be an attainment abroad (and we have no doubt, from the encouragement given to this man, and his like, that it must be so) we are willing to allow him all the benefit dependant on such exertion. For, to omit his *Opuscula Academica*, in 4 vols. 8vo. or the many works edited by others, to whom he has sold, or gratuitously communicated his prefaces, occasional notes, digressions, or advice: he has entirely republished Pindar in several 8vo. vols.—the Iliad of Homer in eight; Virgil in an indefinite number, as the editions have varied,—Apollodorus in 12mo. and 8vo. &c. In short there is scarcely a Greek or Latin author, who during Heyne's manhood, has been republished on the continent, to which he has not contributed his mite or rouleau. He deserves therefore every laud which accrues to intense labour; a labour however too much even for his shoulders, were it not lightened by the following fact. He keeps, or did keep, a sort of academy at Goettingen, (at which university he is professor), or class of nine young men, who were styled 'members of his philological seminary.' These poor youths were employed by him in searching up and down for parallel passages, in groping for obscure scholia and glosses, in correcting the press, in cobbling indices, and in learning from this hopeful mode of instruction to become wholesale tradesmen in comment. When their appren-

ticeship was past; and they were considered able to set up for themselves, they were sent abroad to trumpet forth the books and praises of their late master.

Allowing them perseverance, and drudgery to the fullest extent, we cannot extract from any of Heyne's works evidence of taste, or versatility of talents, or solidity of judgment. All that he has done seems to have been contract work: this indeed in his prefaces he distinctly avows; such or such a job was cut out by the bookseller: he was applied to first, as a prime workman; if the terms met his ideas, he began accordingly; but the requisite number of volumes was decided on by the bookseller. Will it be believed in this country that the quantum of work was not at the option of the author? yet it is strictly true; and, when admitted, can good sense any longer wish to peruse those drivelling, tasteless performances, which were supplied at the bidding of an illiterate tradesman, and were neither the offspring of genius nor judgment.

It is now incumbent on us to extract briefly from Heyne's ponderous preface, some of the causes which operated on him to engage in this edition. That he had great '*Subsidia*' cannot be denied; but again, as it was necessary, that the work should be of a certain bulk, nicety of selection could not be adopted; or the chaff duly separated from the grain. He divides what he has to say under two heads:

Exponam igitur quam brevissime fieri poterit, primo, consilium quod mihi in hac Homeri Editione propositum habuerim; tum a quibus initiis et causis omnis hæc opera perfecta sit; quæ res ad judicium recte ferendum haud dubie cognitu necessaria est: subijciam his recensum subsidiorum, quibus instructus hanc ipsam operis formam amplexus sim.

Ernesti died in 1781. Heyne was first invited to re-edit his edition both by Ernesti himself, a short time previous to his death; and by the bookseller, to whom the copy-right belonged. This Heyne, we think very properly, refused, giving it as his opinion, that the edition was by no means equal to the advances since made in Greek literature, especially in the province of criticism. After some mercantile offers and refusals, and literary coquetry, the present edition was set about in good earnest. He first tells us it was his endeavour to gain to his aid Morus, Beck, and Matthæi; but they either declined his favours, or ran restiff. A copy of Homer, with Bentley's MS. notes, was forwarded to Heyne by Burgess.

Townley gave the loan of his precious manuscript. A person also, by the name of Noehden, was, it seems, agent for our editor at Eton College, to collate the *Fragmentum Etonense*, and was gratuitously supplied (as the said Noehden tells us in a preface to a little pamphlet he wrote on the Scholia of Porphyrius), with fire and candle by one of the fellows of the college. Here he grubbed day and night, and solaced himself over his pot of porter by the discovery of a shy gloss, or the lucky botch of an hiatus which hitherto had evaded the skill of the poor gentlemen employed on it. The same Noehden also collated the Codex Townleianus, and we cannot deny that he has conducted his labour with considerable correctness. Other youths from the Seminarium Philologicum were dispatched to hunt in authors, particularly the Platonists and Fathers, for mention of Homer, or for verses therein quoted, where the copies used, must necessarily have been more perfect than ours, while Heyne reaped the benefit. This reminds us of certain schools in the north of England, where young gentlemen are boarded, educated, and clothed for sixteen guineas a year; but on their arrival, are sent to pick stones from his fields, while their master sits quietly with his pipe and tankard.

It would be endless to cite both in the editions of Homer and Virgil, published by Heyne, the many instances of coarse, faulty, and incorrect Latin which frequently occur. We will add a few from the preface to the Greek bard, which are wholly inexcusable. The word *profligius* is used constantly, although it is only to be met with in an obscure epistle of the mungrel Cassiodorus. *Nuncque* (p. 32), a most unallowable combination; *accuratioreque* (p. 47), still more inadmissible: p. 39, he assumes to himself the low typographical credit of having so managed his notes, that the text may not be kept out of sight: which said text he calls a '*light house*!' and to pursue the metaphor, we may add, that the lamp shines above a mass of most heavy materials—'*Ilias ipsa, tanquam pharus, in oculis habenda.*' The doctrine of Enclitics he has considered very difficult. Surely therefore he should have elucidated it. No such thing. We are left as much in the dark, after reading his remarks, as we were before: and he concludes with assuring us, that it is a study too fagging for much attention. This we freely confess we do not understand. The doctrine of the Digamma, even according to the editor's own allowance, is not complete in the first book.

In so voluminous a work, and where authorities are frequently cited, the record of an index, comprising proper names at least, might seem absolutely necessary, and the omission of this useful appendage the more surprizes us, as the job-work of compiling one may be readily obtained in Germany. This is seriously to be lamented. The division of the work is this. The two first volumes consist of text, with annotation in two columns beneath, and the various readings, with the *digammatised* words between the text and notes, a plan becoming now very general, and certainly less uncouth than marginal lections at the side, which deface the beauty of the page, or endless references to the close of the volume, which fatigue the patience. Of the first volume, the preface consumes fifty-one pages. The text is neatly printed, and remarkably free from typographical errors, and the finest paper, which is now become scarce, is an ornament to any library. The third volume is occupied by the Latin Prose Translation, a worse than useless addition to this bulky performance. On the subject of Latin translations of Greek classics we have before stated our free opinion. Heyne indeed professes himself of the same way of thinking, but he either had not spirit or ability to refuse: for he says, 'cum tamen mancipem librarium alias rationes sequi comperissem, quibus mihi obtemperandum esse viderem: nolui repugnare, quin versio Latina ex editione Clarke—Ernestiana adjiceretur.'

There are other reasons besides the idleness which a Latin version superinduces, why it should be discarded. To attempt a version of a Greek author, except in the vernacular tongue, whose elegance may attract the learned, renders such an effort generally a weak interpretation of the sense of an author to him who looks for verbal help. Heyne, indeed, thinks it possible, that those who understand not Greek, may occasionally look into the Latin, to catch poetical thought and brilliant imagery. Let us take then one of the most pathetic passages in the Iliad, and try Heyne's idea by this test. We all remember the beautiful Greek lines about Andromache and her child in the 6th book; thus are they translated—'retro autem puer ad sinum eleganter—cincta nutritio inclinatus est timens æsque et cristam setis—equimis horridam, horrendum a summa galea nutantem intuens.' Can there possibly be a man who can catch a grace from such balderdash Latin?

There are many metrical translations of Homer, to which, when published by themselves, we would not ob-

ject. But from the necessity therein of keeping the laws of prosodia, the sense naturally must often evaporate, or be omitted or paraphrased. No advantage therefore to a learner can be gained from them. We would recommend the reader who is curious in this point, to consult the republication of the Bibliotheca of Fabricius by Harles. It is time, however to give the history of this Latin translation, as it now stands. Ernesti has commented, in his notes, on many of its errors. Clarke says, he corrected much of it, much he re-wrote. Where did he find the foundation? Certainly from Barnes's edition, who professes himself to have amended this version; and he as certainly borrowed his *substratum* from the Cambridge edition of 1689. The Cambridge editors furnished their Latin text, from the Dutch edition of the Hackii, published by Schrevelius. We therein find grievous complaints of the state of the version, and interpolation of Scholia; and the editors profess, that the former is so much corrected from the 5th book, that it may be looked upon as new: they allow the version to be that of Æmiliius Portus. But we must not suppose that this is the version corrected and published by Portus himself at Lyons in 1580, but that which was edited by Henry Stevens in 1589. From that period all editions of Homer have followed this version. Henry Stevens perceiving its many inaccuracies, requested Portus to correct it; which, when he could not obtain, he set about the work himself. On the whole then, in its present form, it is the patch-work of many learned men, and we might hope (if we cared at all for it), that it is now in a tolerable state of correctness. Heyne traces the translation to much higher antiquity, even to St. Justin; but we fear we have exhausted the patience of many of our readers in this antiquarian research.

Of this third volume, an account of the subsidia to the edition (all of which might easily have been massed with the preface), and a disquisition, 'de versione Homeri Latinâ,' from which we have extracted some of the preceding remarks, occupy 118 pages. The remaining five volumes comprise tautologous notes, which consist chiefly of learned trifling, and the opinions of the Alexandrian grammarians, and lexicographers on each half word nearly of the Iliad. On disputed passages, we look in vain for the acumen of a Porson, and indeed throughout the many thousand lines which compose the Iliad, we search uselessly for a happy conjecture of Heyne's. His only merit would be in arranging and enouncing the thoughts of

others, if this arrangement were really lucid: we now can only thank him for bringing together, however shapelessly, an immense mass of information; and for having laudably attended to the accuracy of his text. We may mention by the way, that it must be a cheering circumstance to the future editors of Homer to know that in one of the MSS. unrolled at Herculaneum, a passage from the *Odyssey* was written precisely as it is now printed. For this intelligence we are indebted to Mr. Hayter.

The reader must expect neither discrimination, fire, nor parallel illustration in the notes; in the latter excellence Clarke is far superior; for although Heyne sometimes refers the reader to his *Virgil*, *Quintus Calaber*, &c. he seldom or ever takes the pains to place the passage before his eye. This is a prime fault, and highly to the discredit of so voluminous a publication.

The absurdities of the Alexandrian grammarians are (as we before hinted), most diligently treasured up in this magazine. The greater part of them had already sunk into oblivion, and we can see no reason for raking them up again; and giving them a conspicuous station under the authority of one of the first scholars abroad. The Latin in which these remarks are conveyed, is disgustingly bald: indeed we have before given a tolerable specimen of the professor's Latinity. Wolfe's preface to *Homer* is wholly different, particularly that prefixed to his edition of 1804. It abounds with elegance, and the marks of study, and a chastised mind. We recommend it as a composition which will give delight in the perusal, blended with instruction.

A contemporary journal some time since descanted with considerable success on the egregious errors of Heyne in his ideal formation of verbs. He would reduce all anomalies to the most absurd standard. We had intended to call the reader's attention more fully to this point, but our limits will not allow us. We shall therefore wave it, as it has already been well commented on, and as the striking absurdities to which we allude are visible to the meanest capacities in most of the professor's pages.

However faulty on some points Clarke may have been, we hold that he has been much abused without adequate cause. He, for instance, first led the way in those points which relate to the niceties of prosody; in this department he not only laboured more earnestly than any preceding commentator on *Homer*, but more successfully. Heyne has not improved on him, and indeed we should have felt

great obligations had he referred us oftener to Clarke's canons, or introduced the most prominent of them into his own apparatus.

'No one,' (says Wolfe in his preface, ed. 1804), 'if we except Clarke, has diligently busied himself about the metre and prosody of Homer: subsequent editors have even added errors, and we are still in the first rudiments of metrical subtlety.'

Be it remembered, that this was written, *two years after Heyne's Homer appeared*, and gives us some idea of Wolfe's opinion of his countryman's talents and diligence. It is a matter of some consequence to distinguish what are the natural properties of vowels in prosody, and what arise from adventitious causes. Some appear not to understand the force of doubtful vowels, in which the greatest liberty is wont to be used. For instance, α is always shortened in αγαθος, ι in ινα, and υ in υπερ; so, on the other hand, they are lengthened in ατη, ιλα, υετος, so, in many other words, these vowels change their measure, as in the augmented tenses of words beginning with υ or ι, in χαλος, αρια, φιλος, and a thousand others, all which *minutiae* have not been sufficiently observed by Heyne. Let us now turn to another species of incorrectness, which we shall discover I. IX. 533. In this passage, Heyne reads αασατο, in the Γ. ασατο, giving no reason for the change. On collating Wolfe, we find he reads properly αασατο and ασατο. The fault into which Heyne has fallen, arose from reliance on former corrupt texts. The word αατον, however, § 271, might have been a sufficient guide; and we are surprized Heyne has made no remark on the quantity of the α. See the *notae et observationes ad §* in the 6th volume, p. 583, where not a word is said on this necessary point, yet where αασατο is quoted with a single σ.

In a note to Mr. Hodgson's translation of Juvenal, we have a strange instance of oversight in Heyne. He is there represented as mistaking M. (the book of Homer so designated), for a numeral. He says, that M. stands for 40 stadia, whereas it signifies the twelfth book of the Iliad!

In L. XL. 678 p. (239, vol. vi.) we read the following note.

Ἐτι ἀπ. Ἀπόλλων. Lex. Scriptum συβοσια, τα συφορβια, laudato Od. § 101. ubi Barnes' edidit συβοσια sine auctoritate; at h. l. reliquit alterum. Fit tamen probabile,

grammaticos metri peritiores, συβοσεια prætulisse, et exhibet id h. l. Townl.

τοσ' αἰπολῖα. ita scriptum inde ab Ald. 2. Antea in Flor. et Ald. 1. τοσσ' quod *repetierat* Clarke et Glasg. ut in συβοσεια in unam syllabam contraheretur—σβα. dura ratio! recte ejecit Ernesti; præstat enim aut in συβοσεια producere, aut, quod melius erat, συβοσεια scribere. Now, if the Townley MS. gives the reading συβοσεια (which in another instance, it seems, Barnes intuitively preferred and if we cannot analogically reconcile the metre without it, surely it would have been better to have read thus; and simply to have given the MS. authority, and the vulgar reading. In this way, half at least of the notes might have been rescinded, to the benefit of the text. We were sorry to see Wolfe give weight to συβοσεια. Ernesti's words (on reference to his edition) we find to be, in his note on Clarke; 'Nihil est repugnans analogiæ, quæ in multis formis utramque formam admittet.' No doubt our readers have remarked the word *repetierat* in our foregoing citation from Heyne.

‘Μαντι κακῶν’ οὕτω ποτε μοι το κρηγυον εἶπας’ I. 106.

After a long note we are told ‘vox το κρηγυον hoc uno loco legitur: occurrit tamen apud Hippocratem.’ *Hoc uno loco* means, though most indecisively, that κρηγυον is not used in any other part of Homer, which we allow; but the end of the sentence which grants that such a word is discoverable in Hippocrates, would seem to imply that it is not in use elsewhere. We would recommend the professor to look into Theocritus and Plutarch, before he again hazards his reputation for correctness.

Our ears were sadly offended at the word *sedatio*, used by Heyne in one of his short notes accompanying the text, Il. x. 256. On referring to our Gesner we found the word was used by Symmachus; but the wretchedness of the authority saved the lexicographer the trouble of extracting the dog-Latin of such a writer in confirmation. We might multiply these strictures *ad infinitum*; and might complain, that we had reason to expect these foot-notes should come out clean and neat, even if their more corpulent relations in the ensuing volumes had some allowance of slovenliness; but we must proceed to a point on which we have already cursorily touched.

It has been hinted that Heyne has not the slightest idea of improving and inciting the youthful mind by recurrence to the most admired passages in the Latin poets, who have copied from Homer; although in other respects this work is so unwieldy. Elegance might have been added to solid utility; and the man of taste might have been delighted, where the pedant revelled. Though it were easy to swell our review with instances attached to almost every fine line in Homer, we shall be contented with two; after which we shall close our remarks upon this edition with an avowal that *The Poet*, as he is expressively styled by his countrymen, still claims another and a better; and our hopes that he may be well edited in England. Indeed we already hear rumours which promise great satisfaction: that they may be realized is our sincere wish. Easy, therefore, as it might be, to fill all our sheets with the incongruity of the Hanoverian Arch-Charlatan, we hold it a duty to reserve the remainder of our pages sacred to works of a more modern date, and tractable form.

Homer in book IX. says,

Τρεῖς δὲ μοι εἰσι θυγατρὲς ἐνὶ μεγάρῳ εὐπικτῶ
Χρυσόδεμῖς, καὶ Λαοδίκη, καὶ Ἰφιανασσα,
Τῶν, ἣν κ' ἐθέλῃσι, φίλῃν ἀναέδνον ἀγέσθω. κ. λ.

Where Clarke (Ed. Ernest. p. 383) classically quotes the lines which Virgil evidently copied from this passage. *Æ. I.*

'Sunt mihi bis septem præstanti corpore nymphae,
Quarum, quæ formâ pulcherrima, Deiopeiam,
Connubio jungam stabili, propriamque dicabo,' &c.

but the cold, methodical Heyne noteth thus: 'De filiabus Agamemnonis v. Obs.' Well we turn to these observations, wherein are notes attached to these three lines of two pages in length, but not a single hint of Virgil. Not indeed that quotation is wholly discarded from the professor's studies—for Apollonius, the lexicographer, forsooth, is quoted with a vengeance. ἀναέδνον ἀνευ ἑδῶν τῶν δίδομενων ὑπὸ τῶν μνηστῶν ταῖς μέλλουσαις γαμείσθαι.' There is also a long dissertation on the three daughters of Agamemnon. 'Three blue beans,' &c. Yet when Heyne was in the hey-day of hyphen and asterisk, and brisk at comments, he referred us at least to these

lines in Homer, when he commented on the passage of Virgil, which we have cited (vid. Heynii Virgilius. Lond. Ed. p/ 17, v. 11.)

οὐδὲ πλεῖσαι κλονεοντο φαλαγγες
τῇ ῥ' ἐνορυσσ'.

'Irruit, et quæ tela videt densissima, tendit.' Æn. IX. 555.

On this common place not a hint is given by Heyne; but we must abstain.

Homer has been long, and still is a desideratum in literature. If we allowed Heyne's excellencies to the full amount that his besotted votaries require, still he has only published the Iliad. May we not venture to say that no good Greek poet has met with such ungracious commentators? The Tragedians and Aristophanes, have met with excellent editors. Callimachus has been laboriously illustrated by Spanheim and his predecessors. Theocritus, since his acquaintance with Valchenaer and Reiske, has nothing more to wish; and the Subsidia for Hesiod and Apollonius Rhodius are abundant, though they have not yet been rightly applied. But the critical editions of our poet, the cares of Barnes, Clarke, Ernesti, Wolfe, and Heyne, may still be easily superseded. In running them over with a rapid eye we see Barnes wholly ignorant of metre; Clarke refining even to absurdity; Ernesti reducing his talents for hire, to the task of commenting on a commentator; Wolfe rejecting the paraphernalia of annotation; and Heyne swaddling himself up in so many jerkins, that the form and figure is no longer to be discerned. In the sumptuous volumes, beyond the reach of the most eager bibliomanist, usually called 'The Grenville Homer,' although from the scrutinizing eye of Porson, the text is nearly immaculate, yet notes are wanted, at least for the elucidation of those difficulties, which have puzzled the learned world for centuries. We would modestly propose a Variorum Homer, undertaken under the patronage of the liberal, by the joint aid of the learned: and can we doubt that such a work might reflect national honour on us, if it were conducted under the auspices of a Parr, a Burney, a Gaisford, a Butler, a Monk, or an Elmsley?

A republication of Eustathius, perhaps, is no less to be desired. The editions of him are scarce, and sell for sixty or seventy guineas—a price far beyond the pocket of a modern scholar. On the Venetian attempt, and its failure,

we need not descant. Happy indeed shall we be if our hints may incite the studios to the re-editing and illustrating the Coryphæus of Homeric criticism, in whose pages numberless opinions and beauties, referable to other points than the verses of Homer, now lie neglected. If his golden work were duly set before us, at a reasonable price, we might easily dispense with all the frivolous remarks and hypercriticisms, the obeli, asterisks, and sciolisms collected from Zenodotus and Aristarchus at first hand, or dully filtered down to us through the fatuity of Noehden's pamphlet.

ART. II.—*Histoire des Révolutions de Perse, pendant la durée du dix-huitième siècle de l'ère Chrétienne, &c.*

History of the Revolutions in Persia during the eighteenth Century, preceded by a Summary of all the remarkable Events in the Empire, from the Epoch of its first Foundation by Cyrus. By C. Picault. Paris, 1810. London, Dulau, 2 vols. 8vo. 11. 4s.

NO country has been so fertile in revolutions as Persia; and if revolutions be, as Machiavel said, the carnival of the historian, the Persian annals will furnish a perpetual feast.

Shah-Abbas, who began his reign in 1587, may be regarded as the second founder of the Persian empire. M. Picault speaks of him as an illustrious prince, and an object of universal veneration; but this object of universal veneration waded to the throne through his brother's blood. The great Abbas bribed the barber of Ismael to cut his throat. Ismael indeed himself had obtained his power by the assassination of his brother Emir Hemse. Shah-Abbas was eighteen years of age when he usurped the crown. One of his first acts was to order the tutor of his youth, to whom he was principally indebted for his elevation, to be put to death in his presence. Nor would his suspicion or his cruelty suffer any of the friends or relations of Murchid Koalikhan to survive him. The Persian history is full of similar enormities; and these who wish for subjects for the tragic muse, may find them in abundance in the annals of the successors of Cyrus.

Shah-Abbas re-conquered the great extent of territory which the Turks had wrested from his predecessors; and with the help of an English fleet he took the isle of Or-

mus from the Portuguese. He re-kindled the martial ardour of his subjects, and is said to have civilized their manners; but his own appear to have been barbarous in the extreme. He had only three children, but even these became the objects of his suspicion. He put out the eyes of the two youngest; and caused the eldest, who was a pattern of virtue and affection, to be put to death. After he had perpetrated this last atrocity, he became almost frantic with grief, and regretted the bloody deed all the rest of his days. His nobles, who had rendered his son an object of his jealous apprehension, then incurred his vengeance. This tyrant had a long reign of forty-six years.

Shah-Abbas was succeeded by his grandson, whom he ordered to take the name of Sessie. The first act of the reign of Sessie was to put out the eyes of his only brother; and to cause his two blind uncles to be thrown from a precipice. Cruelty is a progressive vice; and the tyrant who has once tasted human blood, seems never to be satiated. It is said that Shah-Sessie caused no less than forty-five of his concubines to be burned alive at one time. On another occasion Sessie ordered one of his eunuchs to burn out the eyes of his son Abbas with a red-hot iron. But the eunuch, more compassionate than his master, applied a cold iron painted red to the eyes of the royal youth, and directed him to counterfeit blindness. He acted his part so well, that his father thought he had actually lost his sight.

On his death-bed, Sessie, reflecting that he had deprived himself of his only heir, began to give way to the most impatient grief, and to lament that he had no son to succeed him at his decease. The eunuch said that he possessed an infallible secret for restoring the prince's sight. The king had the experiment tried in his presence; and, as may well be supposed, it succeeded to admiration.

The young prince, Abbas II. though only thirteen when he ascended the throne in 1642, had been so well disciplined in the habit of self-command, by the conduct which he was obliged to pursue whilst he feigned himself blind, that he discovered a degree of discretion above his years. He appears to have been one of the best kings of the race of the Sophis. The Christians experienced his indulgence, and he evinced his regard for a maxim, which does not always animate the bosoms of European, any more than of Asiatic sovereigns, that 'a prince ought to grant equal protection to his subjects of whatever religion they may be.' Abbas II. reigned twenty-four years.

In the next reign Persia began to exhibit manifest symptoms of that decline, the details of which M. Picault has developed in the present work.

From what the author calls, and what appears 'a terrible fatality,' Persia never had two good kings in succession in modern times. Shah Soliman prided himself on surpassing the most ferocious of his predecessors in the refinements of cruelty. His happiness seemed to consist in mutilating those, who approached him; who, according to his brutal caprice, were sent from his presence with the loss of an eye, an arm, or a leg. Yet this monster was suffered to wield the sceptre for twenty-eight years. He was succeeded by Shah Hussein in 1694.

Persia never enjoyed a more profound calm than in the commencement of the last century; but this was only the forerunner of the most tempestuous agitations. The Afghans, who inhabit the little province of Candahar, which serves as a natural barrier between the empire of Persia and Hindoostan, are divided into several hordes or tribes, of ten or twelve thousand families in each. Mir-Vais, the chief of one of the tribes, was the most powerful man in the province, and he possessed those qualifications which eminently fitted him for the part which he was about to act on the great theatre of ambition.

In the commencement of his career Mir-Vais was arrested and sent prisoner to Ispahan; but this event, which seemed fatal to his projects, furnished him with the means of putting them in execution. The court was made his place of detention; and hence he had an opportunity of observing the indolence and incapacity of Shah-Hussein. The whole power of the government was vested in the principal eunuchs of the seraglio; and the utmost disorder prevailed in every branch of the administration. But while the feeble Hussein was absorbed in the vortex of sensual gratification, the cries of the distressed never reached his ears. The eunuchs guarded the avenues of the palace, and the people were thus deprived of all access to the sovereign. After a variety of intrigues, which it is needless to unravel, Mir-Vais obtained permission to return to Candahar, where he succeeded in murdering Gurghin-Khan, and procured himself to be elected king of the Afghans by his followers. Mir-Vais died in 1715, after having possessed the sovereignty for five years. His son Mir-Mahmoud forced Shah-Hussein the Persian monarch to resign his crown

in his favour, and thus terminated the reign of the Sophis in Persia.

After committing various enormities, and alarmed by the discontent of his subjects, or the progress of his enemies, Mahmoud was seized with a fit of religious penitence. The penalty which he imposed upon himself in the paroxysm of frantic piety, was a residence for several weeks in a dark dungeon, where he took no food but a little bread and water, and that only at the setting of the sun. During all this time he kept repeating, in a strong and guttural voice, the word *Klou*, which expresses one of the attributes of the Divinity. When Mahmoud left his place of sojourn, pale and emaciated, he was hardly recognised by his acquaintance. His ideas were totally confused, and his mind deranged. He became more suspicious than ever; the slightest noise threw him into tremulous agitations, and the hands of his friends seemed always pointed at his breast to take away his life. He now redoubled his cruelties, till he exhausted the patience of his subjects, by whom he was put to death at the age of twenty-seven years.

Ashreff, the sultan of the Afghans, now seized the sceptre of Persia, while Thamas, who, according to the laws of inheritance, was the legitimate sovereign, was wandering as an outcast on the shores of the Caspian. Thamas at first endeavoured to procure his title to be acknowledged by the shahs of the distant provinces, when a daring adventurer, who had been at the head of a banditti, appeared to deliver Persia from the yoke of the Afghans, and to restore the fallen fortunes of a descendant of the Sophis. This singular person was Nadir-Kouli, who was born in the year 1688, of a Tartarian family, which was originally settled in Turkestan. His father was a shepherd, like the rest of his countrymen. He at the same time manufactured caps of sheep-skin, which he sold at the Persian markets in the neighbourhood. The son followed the humble occupations of the father.

Nadir lost his father when he was only thirteen years of age, and he remained the only support of his mother. He now appears to have struggled with considerable difficulties and indigence. When Nadir, at the age of fifty, was arrived near the place of his nativity on his return from India, he took a singular pleasure in recounting to the officers of his suite the minute incidents of his youth. He would close his narrative with this striking apostrophe to his auditors:

'You see at present to what a height of power it has pleased the Almighty to raise me. Let my history teach you never to despise the children of the poor.'

'About the year 1704, the Usbeck Tartars having made an irruption into the province of Chorasán, put the greater part of the inhabitants to the sword, and carried the rest into captivity. Nadir Kouli and his mother were among the last. The mother soon perished from the united effects of age and suffering. But Nadir found means to escape, and reappeared in Chorasán in 1708, at the age of twenty years. We entirely lose sight of him from that time till 1712, when having been engaged with some of his companions in sheep-stealing, the profits which he derived from this source, enabled him to form a party in the mountains. He often descended into the plain, where he practised every kind of ravage; but it does not appear that he persisted for any length of time in this horrible trade. The office of messenger to a *beg*, or Tartar prince becoming vacant, then excited his ambition. He shared this employment with another messenger; but a quarrel arose between them as they were travelling to Ispahan, and Nadir put his comrade to death. It is unknown whether the dispute originated on the subject of the dispatches of which they were the bearers, and of which, as they were of great importance, Nadir wished to be the sole deliverer, or from some other cause.'

'On his arrival at Ispahan, Nadir managed matters so well, that he succeeded in obtaining an audience of the ministers of Shah-Hussein, to whom he not only justified his conduct, but obtained a reward for his pains, and was appointed to carry back answers to the letters which he had brought. But his master did not behave with so much indulgence to him after his return; and his conduct led Nadir to suspect that a design was formed to take away his life. In order to anticipate this project, Nadir thought it best to kill his master; and as he was passionately enamoured of the beg's daughter, whom he had in vain solicited in marriage, he carried her off and fled into the recesses of the mountains.' * * *

'This bold and desperate feat of Nadir, did not fail to procure him a great reputation for courage, and this reputation caused him to be joined by a multitude of outlaws, who were happy to find him possessed of the qualities which they desired in a chief. At the head of this banditti he often penetrated into the Mazanderan, where he plundered without mercy strangers and natives.'

The khan of Mazanderan admiring the prowess and other splendid qualities of Nadir, at last received him into his service, and gave him a place in his household. About this time the Tartars, encouraged by the successful revolt of Mir-Vais, inundated the frontiers of Persia on all

sides. Nadir acquitted himself so much to the satisfaction of the khan on this occasion, that he acquired his favour and his confidence. After triumphing over the Tartars, Nadir demanded of the khan that his command might be continued. Babulu Khan promised to accede to the request; but in the mean time he secretly wrote to the court to confer this place on his nephew, who had neither character nor experience. Nadir-Kouli, discovering this perfidy, expressed his resentment without reserve. The khan, his late friend and protector, ordered him to be seized, and to have the bastinado vigorously applied to the soles of his feet. This indignity, as might be supposed, was too great for Nadir to endure. He quitted his residence, and retired again to the mountains in pursuit of new adventures.

Nadir, after this, returned to his old habits of indiscriminate spoliation. He found no other means of gratifying his love of adventure and his desire of distinction. During the invasion of Persia by Mahmoud, the provinces had fallen into a state of anarchy, favourable to the mode of life which Nadir had embraced. He soon formed a small but compact body, composed of *brigands* like himself, and of deserters from the different factions which destroyed the peace of the empire. With this body of desperadoes he plundered the caravans with impunity, and spread terror through Chorasán and the neighbouring provinces. On these occasions he sometimes levied considerable contributions.

Nadir now affected to vindicate the injured rights of Shah-Thamas, and conceived the project of delivering Persia from the oppression of the Afghans. The dispossessed Monarch either through feebleness or gratitude, made Nadir-Kouli generalissimo of all his forces, and with courteous urbanity requested him to assume the name of Thamas. Thamas-Kouli-Khan is the appellation by which this adventurer is best known in Europe. The assumption of this nominal dignity, soon rendered him a centre of union to all the partizans of the Persian monarchy.

‘The caprice of his destiny, concurring with this new title, was taken by the people for a proof of his divine mission; and the most distant provinces of the empire poured forth their troops of warriors, who were emulous to serve under his banners, and to cooperate with him in the deliverance of their country.’

Nadir, or Thamas-Kouli-Khan, was not only the general of Shah-Thamas, but also his minister in civil affairs; and in this double capacity he displayed talents which reflected honour on his character, both as a general and a soldier.

‘ He particularly excelled in the discrimination of character, of which he had acquired a profound knowledge. He discerned at a glance the different aptitudes of individuals, and he always assigned them analogous employments.’

Shah-Thamas, who set no bounds to his gratitude for the services of Nadir-Kouli, created him *begler-beg* of Chorasán, the highest dignity in the monarchy. Ashreff, who had usurped the crown of Persia, and who had not sufficiently watched the growing influence of his daring enemy, began, when too late, to discern the peril of his situation. He left the walls of Ispahan and marched against Nadir-Kouli, whom he contemptuously styled Thamas-Kouli-Khan, with all the force he could collect. Ashreff directed his march to the plains of Damgon, situated at the distance of one hundred leagues from his point of departure. In these plains the battle was fought, in which Ashreff was completely routed, and an end put to the reign of the Afghans.

Though the sway of the Afghans was terminated, the tranquillity of Persia was not restored. Shah-Thamas had given his aunt in marriage to Kouli-Khan, whose power he began to dread, and whose ambitious wishes he knew that he could not satisfy. War was the element in which Kouli-Khan had been bred, and when he had subdued the Afghans he attacked the Turks, at the very moment that Shah-Thamas had sent an embassy to Constantinople to announce his intention of maintaining the relations of amity with the Grand Seignior. Kouli Khan had indeed actually taken Hamadan, and completely vanquished the army of Abdula-Pacha. He afterwards obtained possession of Ardebil, a town famous for its wealth, and for the tombs of many Persian kings. The Turks despairing of a farther struggle against the high destiny of Nadir-Kouli, were happy to demand a truce. We shall not trace the intermediate thread of events to the deposition of Shah-Thamas, who was totally unfit to wield the sceptre, particularly in times of so much turbulence and dissension.

Nadir-Kouli did not immediately assume the titular

dignity of the monarchy, but caused the infant son of Shah-Thamas to be proclaimed Emperor of Persia, under the name of Abbas III. Nadir, who, like most men of his stamp, could play the hypocrite when it served his turn, threw himself at the feet of the royal babe during the ceremony of his coronation. After this, Nadir-Kouli renews the war with the Turks, over whom, after experiencing some military reverses, he finally triumphs. He forced the Russians to evacuate the coasts of the Caspian, and on the death of the infant sovereign, Shah-Abbas, he was formally declared Emperor of Persia. On the 11th of March, 1736, the new Shah was proclaimed by the army. The patriarch of Armenia, who happened to be present in the camp, officiated in that part of the ceremony which consisted in girding on the belt from which his sabre hung. But Nadir himself fixed the egrette on his right brow, which is the most essential mark of royalty. This he did to show, that he was indebted for his elevation only to himself.

As Nadir-Shah never did any thing by halves, and as he knew, that he had already incurred the secret ill will of the Mahometan priesthood by the compliment which he paid to the Christian patriarch of Armenia at the ceremony of his coronation, he convoked an assembly of mullahs at Casbin, and asked them to what purposes they would appropriate the revenues of the clergy. They replied,

'To the maintenance of the ministers of religion, and to the support of the mosques and colleges.' 'I will take this charge upon myself,' said Nadir, 'and in the mean time, as these are the instruments (pointing to his soldiers), whom God has employed to restore the fallen empire, they are *the true priests of THE MOST HIGH*. I accordingly ordain, that henceforth, all the revenues and estates of the clergy shall be appropriated to the subsistence of my *braves*.'

Buonaparte will no doubt make use of a similar speech, and talk of his '*braves*,' in similar terms of eulogy, as '*the true priests of THE MOST HIGH*,' if it should ever appear to harmonize with his interests. Before Nadir-Shah attempted this bold measure, he must have placed firm reliance on the security of his power; for the hostility of the clergy is what even an usurper is seldom sufficiently intrepid to provoke, and particularly to provoke by wounding them in that part where they feel most sore, the source of their temporal emoluments.

We shall not accompany the great Nadir-Shah in his

expedition to India, nor detail his ravages in the empire of the Mogul. On the return of Nadir from India, his son, Riza-Kouli-Mirza, whom he tenderly loved, conspired against his life, and he narrowly escaped assassination. When Nadir's son, whose guilt was clearly proved, was brought before him, he addressed him with a tenderness which does honour to his character.

'Consider,' said he, 'that I am your general, your sovereign, your friend, your father. By all these titles I implore of you one sole favour; that is, to live, to be happy, and to reign gloriously when it shall please providence to bring my days to a close. You are entirely in my power, your fate depends on my will, but all that I ask of you, is to abjure your animosity towards me, which is as unjust as it is inexplicable.'

But the heart of Riza-Kouli-Mirza was hardened, and he answered his father to his face,

'You are a tyrant; you merit death; and if the world is not already rid of you, it is no fault of mine. I fear you not. Do your worst. The worst is death, and death I brave.'

Riza-Kouli-Mirza gave other proofs of determined disobedience, and, according to the practice of the east, he had his eyes put out. Some days after the punishment, when brought into the presence of his father, who still made inquiries after his health, the son answered with invincible firmness—"You have indeed put out my eyes, but you have, at the same time, darkened the light of Persia." If the son had been animated by the impulse of a genuine patriotic sentiment, his conduct might in some degree excite our admiration, and his fate more powerfully awaken our sympathy, but he appears to have been a monster of apathy and vice.

On the 23d of May, 1747, Nadir-Shah was assassinated in his tent. Saleh Beg, whose sabre put an end to his tyranny, is said to have told the monarch, who cried for mercy—"Thou hast never shewn mercy to any one, and no mercy shall be shewn to thee."

A Persian historian relates, that after the assassins of Nadir had cut off his head, they rolled it on the sand: thus 'making,' says M. Picault, 'a tennis-ball of that which the world could not contain a few hours before.' 'The cruelties of Nadir,' adds the author, 'had risen to such a pitch, that they could not any longer be endured with impunity.' Like most great conquerors who have, unfortunately for mankind, been placed upon the throne,

he left his country oppressed by taxation and desolated by war. M. Picault seems to think, that Nadir-Shah resembled Hannibal in his subtlety, Alexander in his brilliant intrepidity, Marius in his rude manners and his martial eloquence, Vespasian in his avarice, Cromwell in his hypocrisy, and Julius Cæsar in his end.

'If large intellectual proportions make a great man in the moral, as huge limbs and a stately growth do in the physical world, we cannot refuse to Nadir the title of great; but if justice, which is the probity of kings; if humanity, which is their first duty; if goodness, which is their supreme excellence, were essentially wanting in Nadir, we must be contented with regarding him as a surprizing character, which forces our admiration, but has no claim to our esteem.'

On the death of Nadir-Shah, his empire was dismembered, and a scene of bloodshed and anarchy ensued, till Kerim Khan prevailed over his rivals and became regent of the Persian empire. His administration appears to have deserved the praise which the author has bestowed upon it. The death of Kerim in March, 1779, was followed by new disturbances and civil wars, in which the same atrocities were repeated, which are so copiously detailed in the preceding part of the present history. This is rather an amusing and not an uninstrusive work. In the compilation of his materials, the author has made great use of the travels of our countryman, Hanway. Some of his reflections are liberal, and indeed rather bold for a man, who wrote with the iron mace of Buonaparte's overwhelming tyranny hanging over his head.

ART. III.—*La Nouvelle Arcadie*.

The New Arcadia; or, The Interior of Two Families.
By Augusta la Fontaine, Author of "*Family Quarrels*,"
&c. 4 toms. Colburn, 1810.

LA FONTAINE has acquired some reputation as a novelist, which his Tale of the Village Pastor and one or two more of his early productions, notwithstanding the effusions of sentimental nonsense and affected simplicity in which they are so abundant, appear upon the whole to deserve. But it is possible even for a German to out-write himself, and we think the work now before us sufficient evidence to justify an assertion which our readers might otherwise be apt to consider as somewhat hazardous.

We shall, however, do our author the justice of examining its contents in a somewhat circumstantial manner, and shall preface our examination by following the exploded practice of Richardson, and presenting our readers with a list of the dramatis personæ for their better and easier comprehension of what is to ensue.

Major Wolfenstein, a man of great family pride, but of high honour and integrity; a true German.

Emma, his wife, very pretty, very vain, and very fashionable.

Countess of Wolfenstein, mother of the major, the widow of a general, and a lump of unfeeling pride.

Captain Frantz, who has trafficked in all parts of the world, very rich, and very eccentric, with all the goodness of heart, benevolence, and oddity of Uncle Toby, professing a strong aversion to all religious sectaries.

Leopold, his nephew, no character at all, except being very good, and very much in love.

Solms, an old Hernhuter, of strict morals, but very stupid.

Augustine, his daughter, very beautiful and very pious.

Starck, a great villain, a Hernhuter also, and an inveterate enemy of Solms.

Madame de Sorgan, a coquette; friend of Emma's.

Julie, the young wife of old Frantz.

SECOND GENERATION.

Oreste, son of the major and Emma.

Adèle; their daughter.

Pylade, son of Leopold and Augustine.

Francisca, daughter of old Frantz and Julie.

The story commences with a mistake. Old Frantz, with his nephew and Augustine, returning to a freehold estate, which the captain has purchased at Abendstedt, pass through the park of the Wolfensteins, who are hourly expected by their servants upon the same errand, viz. marriage. Upon the first appearance of the carriage, all the fire-works are let off, the ammunition expended, and the baskets, of flowers prematurely strewed, before the arrival of the noble owners, whose pride receives no small shock at finding all the preparations thrown away and nothing remaining to celebrate their own entry. They inquire into the cause, and are not a little *enragés* to hear, that the Bourgeois freeholders were mistaken for themselves. The major, however, soon reconciles his mother to the accident, and, upon learning that Leopold and Augustine are to be married on the morrow, as well as himself, they send a

friendly invitation to make a double wedding of it at the same hour, which is accepted. Here the story stands stock still, and before the ceremony takes place, the reader, as well as the lovers, is obliged to have patience, while Leopold, in a long correspondence with his friend, Rodolph, carries him back, not only to the period of his own infancy, but of his uncle's also, who having been left to the protection of an old, bigotted, and avaricious aunt, who kept him four hours in each morning, and as many in the evening, praying and psalm-singing with her, made his escape at about the age of twelve years, and gained a subsistence by begging; then went to sea, traversed every corner of the globe, proved uncommonly successful in all his undertakings, and returned, in the middle stage of life, to enjoy the fruit of his labours. Settled at Laublingen, he sent for his nephew, Leopold, to reside with him, and gave him leave to fall in love with any female that might happen to strike his fancy, provided she were not the daughter of a clergyman, or of a man belonging to any religious sect, as he indiscriminately, and not very politely, pronounces them to be all hypocrites. This prohibition very naturally made Leopold's heart palpitate whenever he met a parson's daughter, and he would certainly have disobeyed his uncle if a very early wound in the heart had not been his security. He here relates to his friend the following anecdote of his childhood. When arrived at the age of twelve, he went on a visit to his mother, who is house-keeper to Count Bruckdorf. The count saw him, and being struck with his figure, immediately retained him to personate Cupid in a theatrical piece which was just going to be represented at his villa, near Dresden. Psyche was a beautiful girl of ten, and the young lovers took such interest in their parts, and performed them so well, that they could not disengage themselves from their first embrace for many minutes longer than was necessary. The audience was of course delighted, the piece was repeated, and at the end of the theatricals, these young sensitive hearts experienced great misery at being separated. Years have now rolled on without their meeting, and the flame is beginning to grow languid, and nearly extinguished, when Leopold, in a journey with his uncle, who travels to dissipate some *secret chagrin* which preys upon his mind, accidentally encounters his long lost Psyche in a gallery of the cathedral of Strasbourg, where she is also seeing sights with her father, old Solms. Captain Frantz and Solms soon recognise each other as old ac-

quaintance, and the beautiful Augustine is introduced as the daughter of the latter. All the long smothered sensibilities of the lovers break out afresh; they are approved by the parties on both sides, and every thing is going on swimmingly, when, in a conversation between the father and uncle, the latter unfortunately discovers that Solms belongs to the Community of Hernhuters, and that the enchanting Augustine has been educated as a rigid *Hernhutoise*. This discovery produces an immediate rupture between the old folks. The captain affronts Solms, who, quietly, and without any irritation of nerves, like a good Hernhuter, departs suddenly from Strasbourg with his daughter. Leopold is forbidden ever to think of her again, and returns with his uncle to Laublingen. Here, as he wanders about in search of objects to divert his attention, he becomes enchanted with the scenery about Abendstedt. His uncle purchases the *franc-fief*, busies himself in improvements, then suddenly confesses to himself that he has *been a fool*, and is willing to make reparation, and having by chance heard of some disinterested actions of Solms, and that he is at present under confinement in consequence of the misinterpretations of his enemies in the community of Hernhuters, he flies to his relief, rescues him from prison, and his daughter from the power of an unprincipled villain of the name of Starck. Then returns to his happy nephew, restores to him his Augustine, and prevails upon the injured Solms to renounce the community, and join the domestic party at Abendstedt, only allowing him to be still a Hernhuter in *principle*.

The reader is now led back to the wedding-day. The two couples are joined at the church at Abendstedt. The dress and manners of the brides are well contrasted, the first so tricked out with finery and external shew, that her bridegroom can scarcely approach her; the latter all simplicity and *internal piety*. The first seeds of jealousy are sown in the heart of Emma, by the major (very *mal-à-propos*), making some observation of this sort, and she imbibes a dislike of the *pious* Augustine, which seems to be the keystone of all her future misfortunes. The major, notwithstanding his high German pride of birth, grows by degrees extremely fond of the society of the domestic party at the *franc-fief*. Augustine's unassuming manners, and the open frankness of the captain's character, delight him. The ladies too exchange visits occasionally, but the hauteur of the countess, and the growing jealousy of Emma, induce a formal distance between them, when, by

some lucky throw of chance, the two young wives on the same day present their enraptured husbands with a son a-piece. The major runs to tell Leopold of his happiness, while Leopold is running as fast to the chateau to communicate his own: they meet *half way*, and interchange the mutual felicity which this event causes: they swear that their sons shall be inseparable friends, and Leopold being rather of a more romantic turn than the major, begs, that the foundation of their friendship may be laid by giving to them the names of *Oreste* and *Pylade*. The major thinks the request a little whimsical, his wife and mother think it more so, but, after a little pouting and disputing, the point is carried, and the children are so christened on the same day. Young Oreste (the major's son), as soon as he is of an age to receive instruction, spends most of his time with his young friend at the *franc-fief*, where the major also becomes a more frequent visitor. Emma's jealousy increases, though without the slightest cause, as her husband is most passionately attached to her. He observes it, but makes no comment; only by way of dissipating the cloud, he travels with her, leaving Oreste with the Frantz's: they return; her jealous symptoms revive, and her health suffers from *intense feelings* endeavoured to be concealed: he then takes her to Barege for the benefit of the waters, where she very unexpectedly one morning is surprised by meeting Augustine. The major runs up to her with delight, and Emma nearly fainting with emotion, makes a quick retreat, convinced that her appearance there must have been a concerted scheme. The major follows her home, and a long matrimonial dialogue takes place, in which she openly avows her jealousy; this avowal seems to rouse some sparks of contempt in the breast of her husband, though it does not at all diminish his affection for her; and he tells her, that he is determined for her peace of mind to quit his chateau at Abendstedt, and never behold Augustine more. He is as good as his word, and Emma, ashamed of her own conduct, and with increased affection, accompanies him to his town residence. He here introduces to her Madame Sorgan, a coquette widow, but very captivating, who soon acquires an entire ascendancy over her mind, and convinces her, that a little *innocent gallantry* is very necessary to keep off the ennui of life. Emma listens, plunges into the vortex of dissipation, and, though she *loves her husband to distraction*, is convinced by a little German sophistry, that she may admit the attentions of the seducing Count Wermer, without at

all infringing upon the duties of a wife. Accordingly she smiles upon him, she waltzes with him, she conceals him in a closet from her husband (who unexpectedly is coming towards her dressing room when he is paying his private court to her), and finally she is carried off by him from a masquerade ball. Fortunately the major discovers the place of their retreat, and opens the door just as the count is pleading his passion on his knees, and Emma on the eve of relenting from her cruelty is tenderly pressing his hand between both hers. The major instantly turns the key, and draws out a brace of pistols, calling upon the count to defend himself. He reluctantly takes one, which, while Emma is endeavouring to wrest it from him, goes off: and she falls apparently dead on the ground. The frantic husband discharges the other at the count, who also falls. He then snatches up the lifeless body of his wife, carries her back to his hotel, *kisses her*, laments over her, sits down to write a few lines to Frantz, in which he hastily details these mournful events, and consigns his children (for he has also a little Adèle) to his sole care; begging they may never know their mother's story. Finally, he runs off to secure his own safety, with a fixed determination never to be heard of more. Soon after his departure, Emma comes to life again, and, in despair for the misery she has caused, puts on a black veil, with a vow never to take it off again, till the major in the course of time may untie it himself. Madame Sorgan approves her resolution, and they retire together, having first delivered Adèle to the captain's care to be educated with her brother. All now seems quiet and composed, and the children continue improving under the tuition of the philosophical Leopold, and the pious Augustine, till one unfortunate day when Oreste and Pylade were jumping from rock to rock to divert little Adèle, she was suddenly missing, and for many years no tidings were heard of her. In the mean time, in consequence of numerous advertisements, they obtained some clue, and as *they imagined* had got her again safe in their possession, to their great and unspeakable joy.

In the neighbourhood of Abendstedt was an old ruined chateau, belonging to the Wolfenstein family, which had been for many years deserted. To these ruins Oreste and Pylade (as yet boys) were very fond of wandering, and indulging their romantic meditations, which now began to be occasionally interrupted by music, accompanied by a plaintive voice. The words of the ballad too, excited all

their attention; for it hinted that though *their* Adèle was living, she was not the same Adèle that resided with them at Abendstedt: this, though enjoined to secrecy; they at last discovered to the captain, and they also at one time met a lady in the forest, with a long black veil, leading a little girl, whom she introduced to them as their long-lost sister; but her sudden disappearance, and their fright prevented their discovering her retreat. This account threw the whole party into consternation, but they were now so attached to the supposed Adèle, that they hardly wished to exchange her. Just at this juncture an old wound in the captain's heart breaks out afresh; and as he has a great deal of spare time upon his hands, he determines to set out upon his travels in search of a long lost fair one, named *Julie*, to whom he had plighted his troth, and made her his *epouse* in the *German fashion*, during the time he was endeavouring to allay her fears about twelve or thirteen years before, in the midst of a violent storm at midnight off Heligoland, and in which they were finally shipwrecked and separated. He was at that time not above twenty years older than herself, but that was a trifle; both were constant; and their constancy is at length rewarded by meeting again in a distant corner of the globe; where, after making her his *epouse* in good earnest, they have the satisfaction to find out that there is a *little consequence of the shipwreck-scene* in the shape of a daughter still in existence; and the still greater felicity to discover before their return to Abendstedt, that the adopted Adèle is the identical child, whom they re-christen *Francisca*. A few years now roll on, and all the rising generation improve in beauty, in stature, in morals, and in *sentimentality*. Emma, still in disguise, plays off her jugglers' tricks with the boys, and contrives by means of a subterraneous passage which communicates from the ruined castle to the chateau of Wolfenstein, to carry on her deceptions upon a more extensive plan. Both she, Madame Sorgan, and the real Adèle, appear suddenly before the two young friends in the great hall of that chateau equipped as musicians. Emma having discovered that they often frequented this old hall, which was hung with the family armour; this trick is repeated two or three times, when the captain is made their confidant, and resolves next evening to accompany them. On the same day that he hopes to develop this mystery, the major unexpectedly comes to Abendstedt—is *delighted* to see his

son, but in *despair* at the loss of his daughter. The captain solicits his company to the chateau; he goes, but without knowing *why*, having been only told that *Count Wermer* had recovered; and here a fine denouement takes place. He finds his *Adèle*, a beautiful blooming girl of sixteen, and believes all his Emma's protestations of innocence. The black veil is thrown aside, (but carefully preserved as a family memento) and they rush into each other's arms with forgiveness and ecstasy. All might here end well, but the young folks think it is their turn now to fall in love too. So Pylade and Adèle, Oreste and Francisca, begin to play *their* parts, and most furiously in love they all are; the flame gaining great strength from the opposition it meets with on the part of the Wolfenstein's, who strenuously oppose the inclinations of their children, from an idea of degrading their family blood by uniting themselves with their Bourgeois neighbours. Still, however, the *friendship* of the parties is kept up, and Oreste and Pylade have commissions in the army. After their departure, fortune frowns upon the family at Abendstedt. The harvest is destroyed by hail; the cattle all die of the murrain; the captain's vessels richly-laden at sea are all captured; his bankers at different places fail; and his possessions at Curacoa are destroyed by a whirlwind. These misfortunes coming like a clap of thunder at one stroke *almost* upset his equanimity of temper, and he raps out *half* an oath before he is aware of it; but he rallies again soon and bears his reverse of fortune with more philosophy than even the old Hernhuter Solms himself, whom he consoles and twits with his *religious resignation*. The ladies *all cry*; but submit with a tolerable good grace to leaving the enchanting scenery of Abendstedt, with all the luxuries of life, and retiring to a small dwelling in a miserable village in the vicinity, to gain support by the labour of their hands. The major visits them in this retirement, and generously offers to share his fortune with them if they will return to Abendstedt; but is still inflexible on the more important score of love, though Francisca and his own darling Adèle, are sighing and pining themselves into a premature grave, and Oreste and Pylade in not much better condition, though signaling themselves by their valour on every occasion. The major's pride and hauteur of character are not a little heightened by the additional honours and fame which he is now acquiring; he rises by quick degrees to be a ge-

neral, then a field marshal, and ultimately by gaining the favour of his monarch, is raised to the highest office in the state, in which he acquits himself with the most disinterested integrity. But he soon feels that greatness is the surest road to wretchedness. His power raises him a host of enemies; he is misrepresented to his sovereign; is dismissed with disgrace from his situation, and all his estates confiscated, except his chateau at Abendstedt. In this moment of affliction he flies to the captain for consolation, and now declares that the bar to the young people's union is *more insuperable* than ever, as he considers his children as implicated in his own disgrace. To this sentimental effusion Frantz silently assents; and nothing can be more gloomy than present prospects on both sides; when the cloud suddenly disperses, the major's enemies are detected in their machinations; his monarch writes to him in his own hand, *begs pardon* for having listened to incendiaries, and restores him to his former rank in the army, as well as to all his possessions. The field marshal now gives a grand entertainment in the town where his regiment is quartered; invites all the family of the Frantz's to partake of it, and (in the presence of all his officers and a large assembly of grandees) surprises his friends most prodigiously, and his proud wife and mother in particular, by giving the hand of his Adèle to the enraptured Pylade, and that of Francisca to the equally astonished and grateful Oreste. The young folks now kneel around him, he blesses them all, and the curtain drops, closing a scene of more incoherence and incongruity than was ever fabricated on this side of the German dominions.

ART. IV.—*Lettres écrites en Allemagne, &c.*

Letters written in Germany, Prussia, and Poland, in the Year 1805, 6, 7, and 8, containing Researches, statistical, historical, literary, and medical; with Details on the public Monuments, the Customs of the Inhabitants, useful Establishments, Curiosities, Men of Letters, Discoveries, &c. as well as Notices on the different Military Hospitals of the Army, and Fragments of the History of the last Campaign. By John Phillip Graffenauer, Doctor of Medicine, formerly Physician to the grand Army, associated Member of the Society of Medicine, and the medical Society of Emulation of Paris, Correspondent of the Society of Natural History of Berlin, and resident Member of that of Sciences, Agriculture, and Arts of the Department of the Lower Rhine, held at Strasburgh, &c. 8vo. Paris and Strasburgh, 1809.

Dr. GRAFFENAUER was attached in his professional capacity to the grand army of France, which, in the years 1806 and 1807, annihilated the Prussian monarchy, and forced the feeble and imprudent Russian autocrat Alexander, to sign at Tilsit, an ignoble treaty of peace. In the course of his service he passed from Wurtemburgh, through Wurtzburgh, Hesse, Hanover, Hamburgh, Mecklenburgh, Pomerania, Prussia, and Lithuania, to the banks of the Niemen; on his return he traversed a part of Poland, and finished his tour at Berlin. The present volume of letters is the fruit of his travels.

The objects which the author generally describes, are such as would interest an observant mind, more attentive to things of general utility, than the tinsel and frippery of polished society. But in many places his residence was short, and, in consequence his views were hasty and superficial. Hence many of these letters are little more than journals of his tour, with remarks such as any man may make who passes through a country in a post chaise. We can therefore select but little for our reader's entertainment. Two or three short extracts must suffice. The first shall be a proof that execrable taste is not confined to the monkish ages.

Oliva is a large town, two leagues from Dantzick, in which a treaty of peace was concluded between the Poles and Swedes in 1660. In the apartment where the negotiation was carried on, on a slab of black marble, is in-

scribed the following punning memorial of the transaction:

' Oliva
Anagramma
Viola

' Sanant, non violant violæ, sic fecit Oliva
Languenti patriæ dum medicina fuit,
Leniit haud læsit, non punxit at unxit Oliva,
Fructus non luctus, flosculus iste dedit,
Hinc oleum vitæ, dulcissima pharmaca ab ista
Pax sumpsit viola quæ violata fuit.

' Anno quo
PaX MoDo CLaret

' Messuit hic oleas urbes gens Sueca Polona'
' Fructibus excelsis pax surgat, Oliva perennet.

In the fourteenth letter we meet with the following memorial of the celebrated George Forster, one of the companions of our illustrious countryman, Captain Cook.

' He was a native of Dantzick; the son of a protestant minister. At twelve years old his father sent him to England, and he was hardly nineteen when he embarked with Captain Cook in his second voyage round the world. This expedition took up three years, and Forster on his return, published an excellent account of it in English and German. At London, Forster met with some circumstances which were disagreeable to him; he quitted England, and went to Paris, where he was received with the greatest cordiality by Buffon and Daubenton. He obtained the place of professor of natural history at Cassel, which he afterwards exchanged for a chair at the university of Wilna, offered him by the senate of Poland. Catherine II. Empress of Russia designed to make Forster director of a new voyage round the world; but unfortunately for the progress of knowledge the war against Turkey caused this useful project to be abandoned. At this epoch the elector of Mentz named him president of his university. He was fulfilling the functions of this place, when the French troops took possession of the town. The inhabitants of Mentz sent Forster to Paris to solicit an union with the French republic; but during his mission Mentz was besieged and retaken by the Prussians. This event produced the loss of his property, and one still more afflicting, that of all his numerous manuscripts, which fell into the hands of the enemy. The vexation caused by his misfortunes united to a scorbutic affection with which he had been long afflicted, and which he had contracted during his long sea voyages, shortened his days, and prevented him from realizing a design he then meditated of travelling through Thibet and Indostan, and for which he was

preparing himself by the study of the oriental languages. He died at Paris at the age of thirty-nine, the 13th of March, 1794.'

The picture which our author gives of the misery of the Polish peasantry is shocking to humanity. If their lot has not been ameliorated, we fear that an invasion of their country by Buonaparte will be the very reverse of an object of terror. Dr. Graffenauer says,

'It is principally in the villages of Poland that misery and filth are at their height. These places can hardly be conceived by those who have not seen them. The hovels scattered without order are commonly composed of only one dirty and smoaky chamber, of which the entrance is often concealed by a heap of dung.

'In a corner of the chamber you see a bed of stinking straw and covered with sheep-skins. A coloured image of a saint is always hung at the head of the bed. At another corner is a dirty table with a bench. In the same room are the kitchens with the chimney, the fire-place, the pantry, &c. The master of the house, and his tender rib, clothed in sheep-skins, with the skin turned outwards and covered with grease, commonly go barefoot; their hair hangs about their head and is filled with vermin, or attacked with the plica; but I will say no more; the imagination ought not to rest on so loathsome a picture.

'The Polish peasantry are very wretched; accustomed from their birth to be *serfs*, they are without industry and talents; destitute of every thing, they are absolutely ignorant of the conveniences and the sweets of life. Never do the pleasures of joy, says M. Gilibert in his *coup d'œil* of Poland, expand the features of these unhappy beings for ever crouching under the yoke of fear, such is the stupidity of their servile condition, so profound is the ignorance in which they are plunged, that seeing no hope of happiness, they neglect even the means of alleviating their misery. They shun labour, not from want of strength, but to avoid the mortification of seeing the fruits of their labours wrested from them by harsh and implacable masters, who appropriate superfluity to themselves, by ravishing from others the common necessities.'

Berlin seems to possess the largest share of the writer's favour. He dwells at considerable length on its buildings, curiosities, learned men, literary and scientific establishments, and charitable institutions. By the bye, we cannot but think that the real utility of these same institutions falls very short of the expectations excited by their well-sounding names. We find an institution for the deaf and dumb, but the number of scholars is no more than twenty.

We are told of an institution for the education of the blind; but the number of pupils, who are maintained *au frais du roi*, is two! It is fair however to mention that the establishment was recent, having existed only two years.

The medical portion of this work is superficial enough; but upon the whole a reader, who is not very fastidious nor very busy, may find his time not mispent by a perusal of the volume.

ART. V.—*Lettres d' Emilie de Montvers & de Pauline de Castellane, par Madame Duval. 2 toms. 12mo. Londres, Deconchy.*

THE characters in this piece are paired with regularity: a hero and a heroine, an uncle and aunt, two false friends, and two of an opposite description form the *Dramatis Personæ*. The fable is inartificial, or rather is conducted by the usual artifices. An old Marshal plots with an old Baroness to marry the nephew of the former to Pauline de Castellane the neice of the latter. Jules, the young gentleman for whom these matrimonial shackles are intended, prefers the sight of his own eyes to the spectacles of his uncle, and falls in love with Emilie de Montvers, the friend of Pauline. Emilie returns his attachment, being ignorant of the intended match, and the affair proceeds till she learns that she is robbing Pauline of a husband, and till Jules is induced by the machination of a false friend to entertain suspicions injurious to her character. Under these circumstances the match-making pair are enabled to carry their point and unite Jules to Pauline. The marriage proves miserable; Pauline becomes unfaithful; the character of Emilie is justified by events, and Jules seeks a divorce with a view of obtaining the hand of his first love. Matters now seem verging to a happy termination, but alas, scruples of delicacy, occasioned by malevolent reports, determine Emilie not to marry Jules. These scruples, it must be allowed, are not at all in fashion in the present state of high-life, and this novel is not likely to bring them into vogue, for what tragical consequences ensue! Immured within the walls of a convent, the health of Emilie yields, in the struggle of her passions, and she dies of a broken heart. Pauline and the false friend of Jules had preceded her to the grave, the victims of their own guilt.

The old Marshall and Baroness pair off to take their last sleep. And it is openly announced that Jules would soon complete the series with nothing more to boast, than the Hero of the farce.

'Kings, queens and knaves throw one another down,
Till the whole pack lies scatter'd and o'erthrown;
So all our pack upon the floor is cast,
And all I boast is that I fall the last.'

So much mortality we should not have looked for in the texture of a French novel: perhaps the authoress may have written under the gloom of an English sky. She is very much à l'Anglaise in her style, grave, sentimental, refined, and highly moral; she has not failed of interesting the heart, and if there is nothing to make folly laugh, there is also nothing to make virtue blush. Her task was a difficult one: a novel in letters can only be interesting when there are as many different styles preserved as there are characters. No letters delight, in which the writers do not unconsciously and unintentionally, let us into the knowledge of themselves. Merely as a vehicle for the fable, the epistolary form is to the plain narrative, what the caterpillar coach is to the mail. We shall place this novel on the same shelf with Julia de Roubigné and Julia Mandeville. It has not the manifold inventions, the alto-relievo of characters, the landscape, adventure and bustle, which delight the novel readers of the present day: and though few will read the conclusion with unfilled eyes, many will yawn over one hundred and fifty of the two hundred letters of which the work is composed.

ART. VI.—*Anecdotes Sentimentales par Madame de Montolieu, Auteur de Caroline de Lichtfield, &c.* Deconchy, 1811.

THESE tales will not detract from the reputation of the author; elegance and simplicity are their leading characteristics. The first describes an attempt by parents to force an affection, which failing in the first instance, the parties separate after marriage: some years afterwards the hero returning to France meets with his wife, and not knowing her person falls desperately in love with her, and is thus manufactured into a good husband. The argument of the second is equally simple. An old cobbler

and his wife who had fallen from better circumstances into extreme misery, one day observed a young man drop a purse under a tree opposite their cabin; the honest old gentleman runs after him, restores it, and in their conference which follows, discovers the stranger to be their long lost son, returning home with wealth sufficient to restore them to their former comforts. The last is an ingenious tale, intended to prove that in some cases no eyes are better than beautiful eyes, and that sometimes it is better not to see at all than to see too well.

ART. VII.—*Voyages dans la Peninsule occidentale de l'Inde et dans l'Ile de Ceylon, &c.*

Voyages and Travels in the Western Peninsula of India, and in the Island of Ceylon. By M. Haafner. Two vols. 8vo. Plates. Paris, 1811. Bertrand. London. Deboffe.

IT is entertaining at all times to peruse the travels of a foreigner in Countries which are familiarized to us by descriptions of genuine English manufacture, but there is a peculiar air of sprightliness about M. Haafner, although a Dutchman, which admirably qualifies him for the office of a modern tourist. His book however might with more propriety be styled "The Adventures of M. Haafner," than pass under the grave denomination of travels: it contains more of what is termed light reading, than the generality of our modern books of travels, and certainly belies the place of M. Haafner's nativity not a little.

The first volume contains the author's voyage from Madras by Tranquebar to Ceylon, and the second contains an account of an overland journey along the shores of Orix and Coromandel. We shall therefore follow our hero in his various rambles, to the amusement, as we hope, of our readers.

In the Introduction to the first volume, M. Haafner's *Redacteur*, (for this is a posthumous work, the author having died at Amsterdam in 1809) assures us that he was a brave and good man, endowed by nature with uncommon talents, and a turn for learning which he had but too few opportunities of cultivating. He was only twelve years of age when he embarked for India with his father, who had been appointed chief physician to the colony of Batavia. This gentleman died on the passage, and left our young adventurer without any pilot to guide him in the

voyage of life. He chose the sea service as a profession however, and spent seven years of his life in this manner in the Indian seas. We never heard that a Dutch East Indiaman was famous as a classical academy, and yet our stripling contrived to pick up some literary attainments while thus afloat. He could write legibly and was acquainted with the elements of prose composition, when circumstances having made him known to the Dutch governor of Negapatan, he obtained the place of a *Commis*, in that factory, which was then the most southern point of the possessions of the Dutch on the coast of Coromandel.

The tranquillity which M. Haafner enjoyed in his new situation, formed a striking contrast to the bustling life which he had just left; but he soon found himself uneasy from the narrowness of his income, and the mechanical nature of his occupations; which afforded but a distant prospect of independence. Our hero was ambitious, and he was determined to acquire reputation by some means or other. He studied the various languages spoken by the natives; he acquired, without a master, the whole art of book-keeping, and he rendered himself useful, nay even necessary to the colony. He was connected with cold blooded Dutchmen however, who wished to make use of his talents without having the generosity to reward them: he complained without being listened to, and at length renounced a service in which he had been treated so unjustly. His spirited conduct on this occasion was perhaps laudable, but it left him without any resources from his countrymen the Dutch. The English counting-houses in India seemed to offer some employment for him, but he must first become acquainted with the language, and he instantly laid out the pittance, which remained to him of his salary to procure an English master. He set out for Madras after having acquired this new language, but it would seem that his former employers regretted the loss of his services, for he was soon invited to fill a situation of some consideration at Sadras. He accepted the offer, 'for he had no animosities,' says his biographer, "and was already strongly prepossessed against the English."

His journey to Sadras was not marked by any extraordinary occurrences. He arrived there at a most important era in the history of Modern India. Hyder Ally had just formed the famous coalition with the Nizam, the Rajah of Berar and the Mahrattas, which was to effect the expulsion of the English from India, a coalition which the French

editor of M. Haafner's works gravely informs us would have succeeded, if the allies of Hyder had not been perfidious. This prince, who is mentioned in terms of high respect throughout these volumes, and uniformly hailed as the avenger of India, began his operations, as is well known by ravaging all the provinces which were under the dominion of the English. This was the case more particularly in the Carnatic, where Sadras is situated; but the governor of that settlement having purchased his neutrality, things continued tolerably quiet until war was declared in Europe by the English against the Dutch.

'The course of policy pursued by the British cabinet on such occasions is well known; as they foresee a war at an immense distance, they arrange matters so well that hostilities commence at one and the same moment in every quarter of the globe, and the colonies of an enemy are thus attacked when they think they are in a state of profound peace. In fact Sadras was surprised in this manner: an English officer entered the gates as if bearing an invitation for the governor to dine with his brethren in arms, but declared himself the bearer of a summons to surrender the place. The Dutch with difficulty obtained a capitulation, upon terms that were soon violated; their fort was demolished; their property pillaged, and themselves sent as prisoners of war to Madras.

'In this new situation, M. Haafner found ample resources in his talents, and had great reason to felicitate himself on his acquisition of the English language; but the horrors of which he was destined to be a witness, soon rendered him more miserable than ever. Madras had become the asylum of the unfortunate inhabitants of the Carnatic, whose villages had been destroyed and whose fields had been ravaged by Hyder Ally. The country could not furnish food for this naked multitude, and famine in all its terrors was experienced at Madras. A convoy of eighty vessels laden with grain had arrived and hope was revived, but whether through negligence or perfidy (and to this last motive M. Haafner ascribes the consequences) a delay of three days took place before the cargoes were ordered to be landed. In the mean time the storms which precede the monsoons came on, and every vessel perished with their cargoes and crews! Famine then commenced its horrid ravages unchecked and unrestrained. I shall not detain my reader with the frightful picture.* One year afterwards I was an eye-witness at Pondicherry, to its sad remains, and I cannot think on the subject at this moment

* Our readers will recollect that M. Haafner's anonymous biographer is now speaking.

without shuddering; we may judge therefore of the impression which the sight of such ravages made upon M. Haafner, who was now the prisoner and victim of the barbarous English who caused them.

We are then informed that M. Haafner's tender feelings were unable to endure this spectacle long, and having resolved to quit Madras, he purchased a small vessel to carry him to Ceylon. He was arrested however on preparing to go on board, and conducted to Lord Macartney, the governor, who set him at liberty, on condition of his being the bearer of letters to an English colonel at Tranquebar, from whom he was to receive a thousand pagodas as a recompence for the faithful performance of his commission.

Our biographer now takes his leave; and permits M. Haafner to speak for himself. We now enter upon the account of this voyage from Madras to Ceylon by the way of Tranquebar, which fills the first volume.

The author describes in moving terms the dangers which he experienced during his voyage. His bark was leaky, from being long exposed to the rays of the sun on the beach previous to his sailing, and fifty times she threatened to founder. When he chanced to approach the shore to take in water, he was exposed to the risk of being discovered by the light troops of Hyder Ally, who would have robbed him at least, if not something worse when they found Lord Macartney's dispatches on his person, which by the bye, he carried very carelessly in his pocket, having resolved, as he assures his readers, that they should never reach their true destination. On one occasion he did actually fall into the hands of the Nabob's troops, and owed his safety to the singular and we may add hacknied circumstance of finding in their commander an officer, whose life he had saved.

M. Haafner arrived in this way at Pondicherry, where the French had then a most precarious settlement. He would have delivered up Lord Macartney's letters to Admiral Suffrein, but that officer was absent at Ceylon. The commander of the French troops was also absent, and our faithful messenger could only find the harbour master, M. Salmiac to whom to deliver his intercepted dispatches. The good and brave M. Haafner had revered with praiseworthy disinterestedness the pagodas of the English, but he expected to be treated with kindness and hospitality at least by the French. This was not the case however:

M. Salmiac coldly took the dispatches and left the bearer to shift for himself; he took up his quarters therefore at an inn, where he was left unmolested in the enjoyment arising from the consciousness of having done a good action.

The voyage from Pondicherry to Ceylon was attended with fresh dangers. At Tranquebar M. Haafner met with a handsome woman of colour, who went by the name of Anne, and whom he had known at Madras. Her mother requested him to conduct her to Jaffnapatam, where she was expected by a young man to whom she was betrothed. A person, who called himself Count Bonvoux and wore the cross of Malta, also requested a passage on board M. Haafner's vessel: he consented to receive both, but the event proved that he had one too many. Anne, it is true, inspired our hero with the tender passion; but the count, who had promised to take on board the necessary provisions for himself, had in the first place, the villany, to take enough for two days only, and afterwards was foolish enough to take upon him the navigation of the vessel, which he carried far out to sea and exposed the whole crew to the risk of perishing for hunger. This part of M. Haafner's narrative would be rather tragical, if the old count, who was avaricious and a drunkard, had not been at the same time a comical fellow, who had philosophy enough to look upon the cruel death which threatened them with complacency, consoling himself with repeated draughts of good wine for the scarcity of water which afflicted the whole of the crew. After all however, notwithstanding the quarrels which his ignorance and misconduct occasioned, the courage, perseverance and address of M. Haafner saved the vessel. Having got rid of the count at Ceylon, our traveller proceeds to enliven his narrative with an episode, containing the history of his intrigue with the "amiable Anne," who forgot her former lover in his arms. That we may be the better enabled to appreciate his felicity, M. Haafner takes great pains to furnish us with a most charming picture of his Hindoo mistress. It is useless to inform our readers of her fine black eyes and well arched eye-brows and the perfect symmetry of her form: these details, although they would come with a better grace from a third party than from M. Haafner himself, may be easily supposed; but Anne had still more estimable qualities, she could embroider, make lace, and was an excellent cook. On all these points M. Haafner dwells with the childish vanity of a Frenchman.

Meagre as these details will appear to many of our

readers, they nevertheless occupy the first volume of the work. Previously to M. Haafner's next voyage, two years had elapsed, the first having taken place in 1782, and the subsequent one in 1784. We know nothing of what became of this great man during the interval, for he has been silent on the subject himself, and upon referring to his biographer, we find that learned gentleman, so far from helping us out of our chagrin, actually disputing the veracity of his original. The *Redacteur* tells us that in 1779 M. Haafner obtained the place of secretary and comptroller general to all the Dutch East India company's settlements. Now, according to his own testimony, he was then a poor *commis* at Negapatam, and in 1781 he filled but a subaltern situation at Sadras. The same pert critic tells us that M. Haafner's father was a native of Halle, whereas our hero himself assigns Colmar as the place of nativity of the Haafner family, an assertion which the biographical notice says is false. In this conflict of testimony we think it but fair to give the author himself all the advantage of his superior knowledge as to his own pedigree, and on other points in which he was personally concerned.

Between the years 1782 and 1784, therefore, there is an hiatus in the adventures before us, and the charming Anne is no longer mentioned in the course of the work, a circumstance which our readers may perhaps account for when they learn that M. Haafner suddenly started into the character of a great and rich man. In 1786 he received a lucrative appointment from the Dutch East India company, and henceforward we find him travelling at his ease, and visiting the Coromandel coast as a representative of the Dutch sovereigns of India.

The second volume of M. Haafner's work approaches nearer to the character of a book of voyages and travels than the first, and is certainly got up in better style. At this period a profound peace reigned in India; our traveller had nothing to fear from the English nor the natives, and travelled at his ease in a superb palanquin. Some romantic adventures however still beset our author, in all which M. Haafner assumes the honour of acting like a brave cavalier and faithful lover. On one occasion an English officer, not less *original*, but more insolent than Count Bonvouix, engaged in single combat with our traveller, but was worsted. A company of Hindoo pilgrims, each laden with earthenware vessels, filled with the sacred waters of the Ganges, had occupied a choudry or cara-

vansera, when the Englishman arrived, 'with the politeness so common to his countrymen,' M. Haafner ironically remarks, 'he insisted that every person should instantly decamp, and began to enforce his commands by breaking the sacred vessels.' M. Haafner immediately interfered, and having overcome his antagonist, first at small swords, and afterwards in a boxing match, compelled him to make a pecuniary recompence to the poor pilgrims, and concluded a peace upon glorious terms.

Soon afterwards the amorous god prepared another adventure for M. Haafner in the choudry of Ventapalam. He was amusing himself with witnessing the dancing and singing of the *Soutredharies*, or dancing girls, when the youngest and most beautiful sent him the bethel nut as a challenge of love. He was hard-hearted enough, however to refuse it, but soon repented of his unkindness. The image of the beautiful Mamia (for this was her name) haunted him constantly, and he pursued the reality in vain. Mamia, piqued at his refusal, had taken another route, and to add to his grief, he was, during his search, bit by a serpent. Neither the Indian jugglers, nor the native physicians could cure him, and some English and Dutch practitioners advised him to have his hand amputated to prevent the farther progress of the gangrene: all this he gravely tells us would not have happened if he had accepted the dancing girl's bethel; but the god of love having at length decided that he was sufficiently punished, M. Haafner discovered the object of his regard two or three day's journey from Madras. She applied an ointment to his finger, which arrested the progress of the disease, and swore eternal fidelity. At Madras M. Haafner recognized in M. Bessier, then a surgeon, but since made a general, a cousin german, and this gentleman finished the cure which Mamia had begun.

The dancing girl having finally left her troop, came to live with M. Haafner at Madras. His residence there for some time was rendered extremely pleasant. His connexion with this priestess of Venus ended rather tragically however. Poor Mamia died in consequence of some injuries she received while in the act of saving her lover from a shipwreck, into which his unlucky stars had led him. We know that some readers will question the reality of all these adventures: there is indeed something very romantic about all the love affairs of our hero, but as the scene lies in India, we are inclined to be charitable on this head.

There appears a laudable anxiety on the part of the author to stand high in the estimation of his readers; and with this view he sometimes gives a colouring of more than common purity to all his actions: he admits, however, that he was jealous of Mamia, and that his friend M. Bessier was the person who had excited that passion. This son of Mars and Æsculapius became extremely anxious, it would seem, to acquire the secret of the ointment which stopped the gangrene in his friend's arm: all Europe would have been indebted to M. Haafner's condescension on this occasion, but he preferred leaving it buried with the jugglers of India rather than inform M. Bessier that it was administered by the delicate hands of Mamia. Our jealous lover kept his dancing girl carefully concealed from his friend during the whole time he was at Madras, and when he quitted it, leaving Mamia dangerously ill from the effects of her solicitude for him, he contented himself with charging his *dobashee* or courier to find a physician for her, without ever mentioning the name of M. Bessier, whom he once regarded as the most skilful practitioner in India. It was not correct in the humble opinion of M. Haafner, to allow the object of his affection to perish for want of proper assistance, nor can the splendid monument which he erected to her memory at Pondicherry atone for his neglect.

We have dwelt at much greater length on the personal adventures of M. Haafner than we mean to do with respect to his description of the country through which he travelled. Our reasons for this seeming partiality are manifold: in the first place, we are strongly inclined to suspect his veracity on many occasions; secondly, he has himself been very brief in his details of a general interest; and lastly there is nothing new to an English reader in any of his descriptions of the manners or customs of a country with which we are so well acquainted. There are a few leading topics, however, on which M. Haafner ought not to escape our animadversion. Throughout the whole of his work we find him animated by feelings of strong indignation against the Europeans, for their oppression of the unfortunate natives of India: these sentiments are natural enough to an honourable mind, but who can believe that M. Haafner's was of this cast, when he informs us that the governor of Madras actually caused the shipwreck of eighty vessels laden with grain, on purpose to produce a *well organized* famine, and to enrich a few individuals who were speculators in grain? *Who will*

be credulous enough to believe that the Dutch massacred several thousand Chinese at Batavia in cold blood, solely with a view to enrich themselves in a speedier manner? The vexations inflicted by the agents of mercantile companies, are unfortunately too numerous, but that they have been carried to such lengths as in the above instances we must continue to doubt until we have the fact from better authority. There is no friend of humanity who would not wish to see the peaceable natives of India delivered from oppression, if the dominion of the English goes by that name; but let us not forget the iron sceptre which was swayed by their Mahometan conquerors, or suppose that the yoke of any European master will be heavier than that of the Tartars or the Afghans: let us not imitate the friends of the blacks in their hatred against the whites.

The partiality of M. Haafner on this subject is beyond our tolerance. He accuses the Europeans of every vice, and he bestows on the Hindoos every virtue: he even carries his prejudices so far, as to ascribe a degree of courage to their soldiers superior to that of Europeans. After this instance of our author's partiality, our readers will not be surprised to find him zealously enforcing the Pythagorean doctrines as to animal food, and condemning the pleasures of the chase. An article in which he draws a comparison between the modes of travelling in India and Europe, would furnish an entertaining extract, but we have already exceeded our limits. Every thing at home displeases him, even the comfortable inns where travellers are so well accommodated: on the contrary, the Indian chowdry, where men, women, children, and cattle, are huddled together under one roof is to him delightful. He prefers a palanquin to a four wheeled carriage, and pities the lot of our European post-horses, but forgets that palanquins are carried by men, who run as quick as a horse at full trot, and emit a groan at every step they take, which must be extremely painful to an European ear of delicate formation.

After putting our readers on their guard against a few of M. Haafner's eccentricities, we think we may safely recommend his book to their perusal. Those who wish to form a slight acquaintance with the climate, productions, the religion and manners of India, will no doubt be gratified. There is a gaiety and vivacity about the author which render him always pleasing.

We had almost forgot to mention M. Haafner's account

of Ceylon, but his materials are really so scanty, and he visited it in such a rambling manner that we cannot think it exhibits much of novelty, more especially as several English authors have lately favoured us with their account of that island. He ascribes the downfall of the Dutch power in that settlement to the gross defects in their military system. Their troops were officered by men who had been coachmen and footmen, and whose conduct was ill calculated to support the dignity of conquerors over the ferocious natives of Ceylon.

ART. VIII.—*Simple Notices Historiques, &c.*

Biographical Notices of the most celebrated Generals of foreign Nations (i.e. France excepted), from 1792 to the present Time. By M. Chateauneuf, 1 vol. 8vo. Paris, 1810. Chez l'Auteur, Rue des Bons-Enfants. London, Deboffe.

We are told in the preface to this work that it has run through three editions in four months; nor is this wonderful when we consider that the charms of cotemporary biography are universally acknowledged, and we overlook the defect of impartiality in our eagerness to become acquainted with characters, in whom we take a double interest from their having in some measure acted a part in the same drama with ourselves.

It would be absurd to expect any thing like real impartiality in a French biographer, particularly when the military events of the present period are under discussion; there is something like fairness however occasionally perceptible in M. Chateauneuf's notices, and any reader with a decent newspaper memory, can easily correct him when his admiration of the superior military skill of his countrymen, leads him into panegyrics which are not always strictly correct.

The work is professedly written to commemorate the heroic achievements of generals belonging to other countries than France. Its real object however is to impress its readers with extravagant ideas of the superiority of French tactics, which are represented as out-heroding every general who had the misfortune to be opposed to them.

The notices in question, with the above exceptions, are tolerably well executed. Among the Austrian generals the following pass under our author's review: Prince Co-

bourg, Duke Albert of Saxe Teschen, Kray, Clairfait, Melas, Wurmser, Prince Hohenlohe, Kirchberg, Baron Beaulieu, the Archduke Charles, M. Nauendorff, Baron Bender, Latour, Wartensleben, and Bellegarde, and the emperor Francis II. himself. The Russian generals enumerated by M. Chateauneuf are Suwarrow, Korsakow, Buxhovden, Lamenkoi, and Kutasow. Among the Prussian heroes we find the names of Frederic William III. Mollendorf, Kalkreuth, Prince Frederick of Orange, Schoenfeld, Blucher, and the princes of Hesse Cassel and Hohenlohe Ingelfingen. The English commanders who figure in the same volume are the Duke of York, Lord Nelson, Sir Sidney Smith, Admiral Warren, Sir Ralph Abercromby, and Lord Hutchinson. The biographies of these last are uncommonly meagre, and do not tell us half so much as every alehouse politician in England knows of the heroes in question.

ART. IX.—*Instruction sur les Betes a Laine, et particulierement sur la Race des Merinos, &c.*

Memoir upon Animals which furnish Wool, and particularly on the Race of Merinos; containing the Method of raising good Flocks, and of increasing and preserving them in Health and Disease. Published by order of the Minister of the Interior, and drawn up by M. Tessier, Member of the Institute, &c. Printed at the Imperial Press, 1 vol. 8vo. Paris, 1810, Hazard. London, Deboffe.

THE public attention in this country as well as in France has been called in a particular manner of late to the subject of the above work. In Great Britain the promoters of the agricultural interests of their country have at length formed themselves into a society* for the express purpose of propagating the advantages which are likely to result from the introduction of Spanish sheep. In France the subject had been taken up at a much earlier period, but the wretched system of government threw insuperable barriers in the way of all ameliorations in which the real good of mankind was concerned. The great and comprehensive mind of Colbert, who was exquisitely alive

* We allude to the Merino Society lately instituted, and of which Sir Joseph Banks is president.

to the interests and grandeur of his country, was repeatedly directed to this subject. Other ministers who succeeded him, entertained the same projects, but their efforts were fruitless. They went the length of recommending the importation of Merinos in royal ordonnances, and the example of the king was set before the farmers of his dominions, but so flimsy is the tenure by which a despotic monarch holds his subjects in their allegiance, that these efforts were of no avail. The principle of imitation upon which the virtues, the habits, or even vices of a monarch become popular, cannot exist, but where there is some share of public liberty, and where the homage paid to the higher authorities springs from gratitude, not from terror.

It was so recently as 1766 only, that Daniel Charles de Trudaine, an excellent and patriotic French minister, seriously devoted his attention to the subject, and he addressed himself, not to the agriculturists and farmers (whose prejudices against whatever was new, had stifled the projects more than once already), but to the celebrated Daubenton, the naturalist, who was immediately struck with the possibility of naturalizing Merinos in France, and which he demonstrated by positive experiments.

In 1782, M. Daubenton published a pamphlet, entitled '*Instruction pour les berges et les propriétaires de troupeaux.*' This was in the form of a catechism, which he thought best suited for the capacities of those to whom it was addressed: as an appendix, it contained extracts from several memoirs which he had read before the Royal Academy of Sciences, and the Medical and Agricultural Societies of Paris, and he subjoined fourteen plates as explanatory of the various subjects on which he treated. This work was attended with the most beneficial effects. There had been already several French works on sheep, but no person had produced an elementary work, containing simple precepts for the care and increase of sheep in general.

The national convention in 1795, decreed, that 2000 copies of Daubenton's catechism should be printed at the expence of government, but it was several years before the decree was put in execution. This edition made its appearance in 1802, when Chaptal was minister of the interior, who entrusted the revisal of it to M. Hazard, a member of the Institute, and Inspector-General of the Veterinary Schools of France.

M. Hazard seems to have executed his task as editor with great fidelity, and has enriched the original work with many valuable notes, preceded by an eloquent dis-

course by M. Lacepede on the life and writings of Daubenton, which he read in 1800, in the Museum of Natural History. M. Hazard has also printed in the same volume a controversy on the breeding of sheep, which took place between M. Daubenton and M. Tolozan, an intendant of commerce, to which are subjoined, several memoirs on the same subject by various naturalists.

The work of Daubenton was regarded as the text book of the French agriculturists, until it was discovered, that the Spanish Merinos might be reared in France to as much advantage as in their native country. The French board of agriculture, immediately upon this fact being ascertained, instructed M. Gilbert, one of their members and professors in the Veterinary School of Alfort, to prepare a work on the plan of M. Daubenton's, expressly adapted to the breeding of the Spanish race of sheep.

Two editions of a work of this description were accordingly printed and distributed gratis in the years 1797 and 1799, and M. Gilbert, by the manner in which he executed his task, obtained the approbation of men of science in general.

Much additional information having been subsequently obtained, and M. Gilbert's work having been long out of print, M. Tessier, the author of the work more immediately under our notice, was directed by the French government to draw up a new code of instructions for the breeding of Merinos, with a view to give the public the advantage of the experiments made during the ten years which had elapsed since the publication of M. Gilbert's book.

The plan which M. Tessier has adopted for his work, is concise and simple. After a few observations on the principal races of sheep in general, he describes the characters of the true Merinos in particular, and points out the various ways in which advantage may be taken of accidental or intended crossings of the breed.

Under a second head, he gives an account of the proper manner of introducing the rams into the flock, and of managing the lambs from the moment of their birth; he then treats of the feeding, shearing, and pasturage of the animal, and proceeds to describe the best methods of dressing the wool and preparing it for sale, and concludes with directions for fattening the animal previous to its being slaughtered.

M. Tessier next speaks of the diseases to which Merinos are subject, as well as the other races of sheep, and describes the best methods of cure, but more especially of preven-

tion. On this branch of his subject, the author has been extremely minute, and is entitled to the best thanks of the humane in general.

The volume concludes with instructions for choosing, or rather forming good shepherds, without whom no person can have good flocks. An article on the training of dogs for the care of sheep, is annexed, and does great honour to M. Tessier's industry. Some curious particulars as to the character of this sagacious animal are for the first time presented to our view in this department of his work, and add greatly to its value as a practical treatise on a branch of natural history, which comes home to the 'business and bosoms' of nine-tenths of the inhabitants of all countries.

ART. X.—*Voyages en Allemagne et en Suede, Travels in Germany and Sweden; containing: Observations on the Phenomena, Institutions, Arts, and Manners of these Countries, with an Historical Account of the Monuments and Remarkable Places, Anecdotes of Illustrious Men, &c. By J. P. Catteau, Author of the "Tableau des Etats Danois," 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, Dentu; London, Debosse.*

M. CATTEAU is already favourably known in the literary world as the author of a very valuable work entitled *Tableau des Etats Danois*, to which his present work may be regarded as a kind of supplement.

Having embarked at Copenhagen at the commencement of his present excursion, the appearance of the shores of Germany furnish M. Catteau with an opportunity of giving a sketch of the various revolutions which have distracted that country since the reign of Charlemagne. An agreeable manner of writing characterizes this part of the work, and produces a favourable impression at the outset.

Oldenburg, where M. Catteau landed next, furnishes him with an opportunity of giving an account of the house of Holstein, which sprung from this place, and of the prodigious fortune which the various branches of it acquired.

When at Lubec, he takes occasion to give an account of the Hansæatic league, and develops the causes of its influence upon the affairs of Germany for nearly three centuries.

Hamburg next furnishes our traveller with an oppor-

tunity of descanting on the advantages of commerce, chiefly with respect to its connection with civilization and the improvement of the human mind. Ample details on the manners of the inhabitants and on the government of the city, with biographical notices of such eminent men as were born there, conclude this part of the author's description.

When describing Altona, M. Catteau relates the adventures of John Labadie, the founder of the Labadists, whose incontinent life brought such scandal on the sect, and provoked a sentence of banishment from almost every state in Europe where he was received. Labadie died at Altona.

As this place is generally filled with refugees from all parts of Germany, M. Catteau enters upon an inquiry into the political consequences of this emigrating spirit among farmers and mechanics, and points out the effects of the emigrations from Russia, Spain, and other countries of Europe, to America.

The city of Luneburg, situated in the midst of barren plains, affords an opportunity of introducing the House of Brunswick, and as M. Catteau's article on this subject is among the best in his work, we shall lay it before our readers:

'Who could suppose, that the humble soil of Luneburg could boast of having a common master with some of the most fertile vales of Italy and the proud cliffs of England? The enterprizes and projects of restless minds sometimes produce astonishing combinations. In the twelfth century, a prince of the ancient House of Este was transplanted from Italy into Germany by a marriage with a princess of that country, and which laid the foundation of the House of Brunswick. He acquired vast domains: his posterity became numerous, and their possessions were extended from the Rhine to the Vistula. The city of Luneburg, placed in the centre of the country which adjoins the Rivers Elbe and Weser, became the chief seat of one of the branches of this family. Circumstances not less remarkable, brought this branch, also called the House of Hanover, to the throne of England.

'Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, had espoused Sophia, daughter of Frederick Palatine, and Elizabeth, who was daughter to James I. of England. When the parliament appointed a successor to Queen Anne, there were 54 princes or princesses who could fairly claim the succession, some of them the descendants of Charles I. and others of Frederick and Elizabeth. Among the latter, were the Houses of Orleans, Bourbon, Condé, and Louvaine; but Sophia, the Princess of Ernest Augustus, suc-

ceeded, because she was a Protestant. This princess died before Queen Anne, and it was her son who filled the throne of England as George I.

The boundaries of the domains of the House of Hanover terminate near Zell, an agreeable and populous town surrounded with gardens. Near the town is a castle, which served as a residence to the Princes of Zell, who were cadets of those of Luneburg. The last, who died in 1705, was Prince George William. Having resided many years in France, he acquired a decided predilection for the language and manners of that country. Mademoiselle d'Olbreuse, of a Protestant family of Poitou, having visited Germany with several families attached to the same religion, the Duke of Zell offered her an asylum. She soon became agreeable to her benefactor, who prevailed on the Emperor of Germany to create her Princess of Harbourg, that he might marry her without derogating from his rank. The new duchess was remarked for her wit and beauty, and diffused a taste for the polite arts around her.

George Lewis, of Hanover, who afterwards succeeded to the throne of England, married Sophia Dorothea, who was born of the marriage of George William and Mademoiselle d'Olbreuse. His mother, who was fond of recollecting that the blood of king's flowed in her veins, testified her dissatisfaction at this alliance, and received her daughter-in-law with great coldness. The young princess, besides, found a different spirit at the Court of Hanover from that which prevailed at Zell, nor was the gloomy disposition of her husband calculated to secure her affections. Shut up from society in her new residence, and overwhelmed with ennui, she saw with delight a traveller whom she had known at her father's court. This was Count Konigsmarke, a descendant of the general of that name, who, with Baniel Torstenson and Waymar, sustained the honour of the Swedish arms upon the death of Gustavus Adolphus. He was allied to the first houses in Germany and Sweden, and throughout the northern courts, the beauty of his sister, Aurora, who had captivated Augustus, King of Poland, was the theme of admiration.

The connection which took place between Count Konigsmarke and Sophia Dorothea, became the subject of conversation among the courtiers. Disagreeable reports reached the ears of her husband, letters were intercepted, and a coldness arose on his part, which terminated in acts of violence and outrage. The princess came to the resolution of leaving a place which had thus become odious to her. She consulted with Konigsmarke, who undertook to conduct her to France, where she proposed to change her religion and enter into a convent. The resolution was taken, but the moment of putting it in execution was not fixed. In the mean time, the secret transpired through the indiscretion of a confidant of the princess. One day, on leaving the

castle, he was assaulted in an obscure alley by four men, who killed him with pikes and threw his body into a ditch.

George Lewis was absent. On his return to Hanover, he highly disapproved of this act of barbarity, but he consented that the princess should be exiled and divorced: the children were, however, secured in their rights. Sophia Dorothea had the old Castle of Ahlden, not far from Zell, assigned as her residence. A chamberlain and some ladies of honour were allowed her, and she was permitted to take an airing in the environs of the castle. Her father, who was a very zealous Protestant, and who became indignant at her proposal to change her religion, would never see her again, but she was frequently visited by her mother. When her husband was recognized as heir to the throne of England, he offered her his hand in marriage once more. She refused the offer in the following noble manner:—"If I am guilty, I am unworthy of him; if I am innocent, he is unworthy of me." George repeated his request, but the princess persisted in her refusal, and died in exile.

About a century afterwards, chance brought a princess of the same house to the same place under similar circumstances. Caroline Matilda, grand daughter of George and Sophia Dorothea, had become Queen of Denmark, in consequence of her marriage with Christian VII. Accused of an improper connection with Struensee, who perished on the scaffold, she was dragged from her family and immured in the Castle of Cronberg, from which she was afterwards removed to the palace of Zell. In vain she protested her innocence, and demanded back her husband and children: her enemies were deaf to her solicitations: grief preyed incessantly upon her mind, and she sunk into the tomb a few years afterwards. She was in the flower of her age: the mildness of her manners and the melancholy which reigned in her whole appearance, left a deep impression on all those who knew her while in her place of exile: her children, from whom she was separated for ever, were the constant objects of her anxiety.

The above is a fair specimen of M. Catteau's historical powers, and we shall now exhibit him in another light, equally, as we presume, to the gratification of our readers.

A short distance from Hanover is the Garden of Herrenhausen, which is not to be put in competition with many others of modern Europe, but which is nevertheless interesting in a particular point of view. Leibnitz was fond of meditating here: vast ideas and profound combinations issued from these shady walks: under the foliage of these venerable trees, I still see the shade of the philosopher wandering, and I call to my

recollection the gardens in which Plato taught the Greeks philosophy. Such is the ascendancy of genius, that every thing which has been in contact with it, shares in its renown!

Germany gave Leibnitz birth, but his memory will be cherished by the universe at large, and the people of all nations are bound to do him homage. He enlarged the limits of human knowledge, and his genius embraced the widest sphere ever comprehended by mortal man. He appeared as the zealous promoter of the sciences, not only at Hanover, but at Vienna, Paris, Berlin, and London. He corresponded with the illustrious men of all countries, and was the first to establish between men of science those liberal communications, devoid of all prejudices and of every selfish end, which have been so essential to the progress of knowledge.

Instead of publishing his researches in voluminous works of difficult access, he gave them to the world, for the most part in the form of pamphlets or in periodical works. The German language being less extensively known, he wrote in Latin and French. The universality of his knowledge did not detract from its depth: if he occupied himself with the mathematical and physical sciences, it was to enrich them with discoveries, with methods, and with applications; if he wrote upon national philosophy, it was to unravel the deepest mysteries; and if the metaphysical systems, which were the results of his meditations, did not escape the influence of the times, so formidable to all systems, they furnished the human mind with food for exercising its powers: there still remain traces of his systems in most of our modern doctrines, and they prove the strength of mind and comprehensive grasp of their author. Leibnitz was acquainted not only with the ancient and modern languages, but he analysed the principles and mechanism of language in general, and conceived the possibility of an universal idiom for the use of the learned. In his historical works, sentiment vies with erudition. He lays down precepts for discerning the truth of commonly received fables, and furnishes a clue for directing the historian in the labyrinth occasioned by the migrations of the various nations which now cover the face of Europe.

In the Temple of Glory, the name of Leibnitz is inscribed beside the names of Aristotle, Plato, Descartes, Bacon, and Newton. The appearance of men of their stamp is a phenomenon in the revolution of ages, and there have been whole nations which have never produced a single character of this description.

England was jealous of Germany. A celebrated controversy arose on the subject of the discovery of the differential calculus, which in London was ascribed to Newton; but Europe judged otherwise, and after having examined the subject with impartiality, it was ascertained, that the glory was divided between

Leibnitz and Newton, both having attained the same objects by a different route. Happy indeed would it be for mankind, if their disputes were all of this kind!

On his arrival on the shores of the Weser, M. Catteau, with all the enthusiasm of an antiquarian, brings his readers to the denle where Arminius triumphed over the Romans, and points out the ruins of the castles inhabited by Wittekind, who was bold enough to measure swords with Charlemagne. After speaking of Bremen, Osnaburg, Cassell, and other towns in the north of Germany, the author next takes occasion to review the tenets of the various religious sects which separated from the creeds of Luther and Calvin.

Some remarks upon the structure of the German and Dutch languages precede our traveller's entrance into Holland, where his excursions are not very extensive. Afterwards he ascends the Rhine and visits the south of Germany.

If we wish to discover the first efforts of the Germans for the advancement of the sciences, we must look towards the Rhine. Cologne, so early as the tenth century, could boast a rival university to that of Paris or Boulogne, and which was the general rendezvous not only of the youth of Germany, but of Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Mentz, had the honour of producing the art of printing, and the first presses of any note were established at Strasbourg, Bale, Francfort, and Heidelberg. The library of the latter city was the most valuable in Germany in the sixteenth century.

If we seek for the cradle of the arts and the true country of those talents which create and perfect them, we must transport ourselves to the Banks of the Rhine, to Suabia, and the Palatinate. Chivalry flourished in all its glory at the Court of the Princes of the House of Suabia, who filled the imperial throne during part of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. With chivalry appeared the first poets, imitators of the Troubadours, and known by the name of Minnesinger. In more modern times, the same countries produced Wieland, Göthe, Schiller, to whom the vicinity of Switzerland entitles us to add Haller, Bodmer, Gessner. The muse of Klopstock felt a new existence on passing from the Banks of the Elbe to the fine sky of Switzerland. It was the city of Augsburg which furnished the first artists and the first schools of the arts of design. The pupils formed at Stutgard and Manheim, overspread all Germany, and their talents were universally admired.

M. Catteau proceeds to Manheim, Schweitzingen, and Heidelberg, and describes whatever is remarkable in those

places. He details in a feeling manner the misfortunes of the Palatine family at the commencement of the thirty years war, a war undertaken under the pretext of religion, but which deluged Germany with blood.

Vienna, Munich, Ratisbon, Darmstadt, and Francfort, are afterwards visited by M. Catteau, and described with considerable fidelity.

Observations on the industry of the Germans form a kind of episode in this part of the work; and the author next visits Hanau, a city which was built by the Flemings, who were driven from their country by religious persecution. Among their descendants, the same moral qualities are discernible for which the Dutch are distinguished. This circumstance leads M. Catteau to speak of the Vaudois, who were forced by causes absolutely similar to emigrate into the same country.

A short account of the Abbey of Fulda, some reflections on the influence which the higher clergy of Germany had on the progress of the fine arts, and observations on the influence of the reformation of Luther in politics and morals, with anecdotes concerning Götha, Weimar, &c. finish the first volume.

In his second volume, M. Catteau carries his readers through Saxony, Bohemia, Prussia, &c. Anecdotes of Gustavus Adolphus, Tycho Brahe, and Frederick the Great, (few or none of which by the bye are new), contribute to swell out the volume. The subject of Sweden is promised to be taken up in a still more ample manner in the third volume: in the mean time we think M. Catteau has presented us with an useful and entertaining work, in the two volumes before us. Our readers will perceive from the sketch we have given, that the author is to be rated amongst those travellers who regard the scenes before them rather with the eye of a philosopher and a politician, than with that of a mere tourist.

ART. XI.—*Voyage aux Indes Orientales, &c.*

A Voyage to the East Indies, during the Years 1802, 1803, 1804, 1805, and 1806, giving an Account of the Cape of Good Hope, of the Isles of France, Bonaparte, Java, Banca, and the City of Batavia; some Observations on the Commerce and Productions of those Countries, on the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, the Cruise of Admiral Linols in the Indian Seas and the Coast of Sumatra; Remarks on the Attack and Defence of Colombo, in the Island of Ceylon, when surrendered to the English; likewise a Vocabulary of the French and Malay Language, with an Atlas, composed of Marine and Military Charts, constructed by the Author, Plates representing the Dress and Armour of the Inhabitants of the Country, and different Views. Dedicated to his Royal and Imperial Highness Prince Eugene, Napoleon of France, Arch-chancellor of the Empire, Prince of Venice, and Viceroy of Italy. By C. T. Tombe, formerly Adjutant-Captain of Engineers in the Service of the Regency at Batavia; at present Chief of Battalion and superior Officer of the Staff of the Army of Italy. Reviewed and illustrated with many Notes by M. Sonzogni. Paris, 8vo. 2 toms. 1810.

VOYAGES, in the route into which the fortune of M. Tombe threw him, are so common, and the relations of them, many, by very able and well-informed writers, have been of late years so numerous, that we think it behoves those who take upon them to present similar accounts to the public, to be very select in their materials; and to give a value to their works, either by correcting the errors of their predecessors, or by adding something new or curious to the existing stock of information. But M. Tombe, on quitting his native land, makes a journal of his travels, and gives us the whole of it, whether the events possess any interest or none, of which cases the last is of course the much more frequent. Why should we be told of the longitudes and latitudes of Cape Finisterre, Porto Santo, or Madeira? However M. Tombe has accidentally given some particulars of places, which recent events have connected with our own island; and concerning which therefore Englishmen must feel more curiosity than formerly. We mean of course the isles of Bourbon (the name of Bonaparte is, we hope, severed from it for ever)

and of France. Passing over, therefore, the meagre adventures of M. Tombe's voyage to the Cape, and his residence at Cape Town, we will at once suppose him landed at this former refuge of the French power in the Indian seas, and extract some particulars from his account.

This island, situated in 21 degrees S. latitude, and 57 long. (meridian of Paris) was discovered by the Portuguese in 1500, who named it the island d'Acerno (of Swans). They formed no establishment on it.

The Dutch took possession of it in 1598, and imposed the name of the Mauritius, from prince Maurice, their stadtholder. They placed a colony in it in 1640 at the port, called latterly *Port-Imperial*; but finding it ill-suited to their commercial operations, and hardly habitable from the great number of monkeys, rats, and grasshoppers with which it was infested, they abandoned it in 1708.

In 1715, M. Dufresne arrived at Port Louis (lately called Port-Napoleon) took possession of it in the name of the king, and called the island the Isle of France. The entrance into the principal port is defended on one side by a fort, called *Fort-Blanc*, and on the other by batteries. The passage is very narrow, difficult, and dangerous; so that it cannot be penetrated under the fire of the works, nor without the aid of a pilot. The length of the island, from north to south, is about fourteen French leagues, and its breadth about nine leagues and two-thirds. Of Port-Napoleon, which is the chief place of the colony, we have the following account:

It is a very lively little town; the streets are almost all straight; the principal ones, in which the shopkeepers live, are parallel to the sea-shore; they are not paved, but formed of loose pebbles as at the Cape of Good Hope. The houses are all made of wood, and are generally composed of a single floor, constructed in such a manner, that they can be transported on rollers from one quarter to another, which is very often done. The exchange of commodities carried on here is considerable; all the objects of merchandize both of Europe and of India are found here; it is the general *entrepot* of these two extremities of the world.

The government house, situated in an area, opposite the gate of the port, called *The Place*, though old, is a handsome stone building; it is composed of a body and of two wings, (it has been lately rebuilt). Behind, perpendicular to the shore, is a large street leading to a plain, called the *Champ de Mars*, which extends to the foot of the mountain *du Pouce*. At the

entrance of the *Champ de Mars* is the church built of stone; having been partly burnt down it is at present used as a magazine. At the further extremity, near the foot of the mountain, is seen the tomb of General Malartie, who was governor of the island during the most stormy period of the revolution; this monument has been erected in honour of his government, to which the parent state owes the preservation of this fine colony.

There is a very fine military hospital, capable of holding some hundred men, attended in part by a religious sisterhood, preserved in their painful functions by reason of the services which they have at all times rendered to the sick. They are under the superintendence of a *curé-aumônier*, with the title at present of apostolic prefect. A part of the building is applied to the reception of the sick slaves of the state.

The establishments for the works of the artillery and the engineers, particularly for this second, are large and commodious. The body of the barracks, the part of which is square and very large, is in good condition. The greatest part of the officers are lodged in them.

In *The Place* has been built an edifice, in which the bank is held. In this transactions are carried on for immense sums, in spite of the continual cruises of the English. The largeness of these operations proceeds from the numerous prizes taken by the frigates of the state, the privateers of the colony, the expences of their armament, and the exchange made with the neutral nations of Europe and India.

There is also a handsome theatre, lately built of wood. The colony maintains a company of players the whole year.

The population of Port-Napoleon is estimated at about 6000 souls, of whom a third are either Europeans or of European origin; the remainder are Malabars, Lascars, or free blacks, among whom are many mulattoes. The Malabars and Lascars have their separate camps on the causeway leading to the mountain Longue, and in the canton of Pamplemousse. The free blacks, composed generally of Africans from the coast of Mozambique, natives of Madagascar and Indians, or the offspring of parents of those different nations; have their camp on the road of the canton of Mocka, to the foot of the mountain *du Pavillon*.

Each of these nations follows without restraint its own religion, customs, and manners. Many have become Catholics; but all the mulattoes, springing from the intercourse of Europeans with black women, are bred up to the religion of their fathers.

The port of this town is not the only one on the island; but it is the only one in which vessels can be certain of supplies, and run no hazards. Another called *Le-Grand*

Port, and latterly Port Imperial, can admit a good many vessels; but to enter or clear the harbour is difficult and hazardous. There is also a good roadstead at the mouth of the Black river; and three or four others also which afford a retreat to merchantmen, batteries having been constructed, under the fire of which they may retire, when pursued by an enemy.

The ancient constitution of the island admitted a considerable portion of political liberty. There was a colonial assembly formed of deputies from the several cantons, to the number of 45. From these issued an intermediate commission of five, which was permanent, and which was renewed by *halves* (as M. Tombe tells us) every month. These were, we presume, a control over the power of the governor-general, appointed by the crown. But every vestige of this establishment was destroyed by the late captain-general Decaen, the first step of whose administration was to dissolve the colonial assembly, the intermediate commission, and to break all the civil authorities and tribunals of the colony.

A large proportion of the population of the colony consists of slaves. They are estimated at 60,000, two-thirds of them Mozambiques and Caffres; the remainder Malgaches (natives of Madagascar) and Indians. The traffic for slaves produces of course a perpetual intercourse between the island and the African coast and Madagascar. The mode in which it is carried on with Madagascar is singular enough. The account may amuse our readers, who will put as much confidence in it, as they think it merits.

On going ashore, all the natives come to offer you their wives and daughters; you confer a great honour upon the object of your choice, because if the product of the union should be a male child, he becomes a king, prince, or chief of the village. If it is a daughter, she is considered as a princess, that is, very great respect is paid to her. The costume of these little kings, and their residence, hardly differ in any thing from that of their subjects; they are to be distinguished only by the respect and consideration in which they are held, and the obedience which is paid to them. The traders take for wife that of a chief or one of their daughters; they buy or hire a house made of the branches of trees, and covered with the leaves of the cocoa-tree; there they deposit their goods; they make known to this female what they desire in exchange, and it is she who goes over the country and makes the bargains. It is always a great advantage to choose her from the family of a

prince of some power, because then she obtains the blacks more easily at a moderate price. When the cargo is completed, and put on board, a present is made to the woman of a piece or two of blue cloth, some handkerchiefs or trinkets, such as necklaces of false pearls, white or red, some arrack, and you dismiss her. Whilst the trade is carried on, the relations often visit you; little presents must be made to them, particularly in arrack, of which they are very fond. A watch must be kept upon their hands, as they are given to pilfering; otherwise they are a good kind of people; hospitable, and people may travel safely into the interior of the country.

The trade in slaves has produced at Madagascar the same miseries as on the western coast of Africa. The little chieftains are continually at war, in order to procure prisoners, whom they sell for articles, which are in truth either useless or injurious to themselves. M. Tombe says of the Malgache, that

he is large, strong, well made, contemplative; even in slavery he preserves a character of independence; in consequence it is very common to learn at the Isle of France that ten or twelve men and women, have in the night seized upon a bark in the port, or in some bay, and have fled to their country, without compass or provisions, guided only by the sun or some star they may have observed, at the risk of perishing with hunger, or of being swallowed up by the waves. This happened several times during my residence: some were never heard of, others having arrived at Madagascar, and been forced by the wind, and currents to land on a part of the coast inhabited by their enemies, were taken a second time and re-sold.

The principal productions of the island are sugar, coffee, indigo, cotton, cloves, corn, manioc, maize, and all the legumes of Europe. But it appears that its whole produce is not nearly equal to the sustenance of its inhabitants. They procure rice from Batavia, cattle from Madagascar, and turtle from the isles Sechelles. The real wealth of the island consisted in its being a depot of prize goods. It is probable, therefore, that in our hands it will lose the greater part of its population, and be reduced to its original sterility. But the security given to our commerce will reimburse us amply for the expence both of the conquest and of retaining it; and we trust that the detestable traffic in human beings will be totally suppressed.

This island possesses the exemption from venomous animals, claimed by our sister across St. George's channel. But it is not however without its plagues. Besides centipedes, scorpions, and monkeys, which make cruel ravages,

among the fields of maize; the musk rat is an abominable nuisance. It is found not only in the fields, but in the houses and in the port. Its scent is so strong and disagreeable, that if one of them should pass through a cellar, all the wine in bottles, however well corked, becomes tainted by it, and is spoiled for drinking. This pest was not a native of the island, but was transported by accident from the continent of India. The fact of its spoiling wine has been related by Percival in his account of the island of Ceylon, at Colombo, hardly a house being free from them. It seems so extraordinary, that many naturalists have doubted its truth. But after this additional testimony of M. Tombe, there seems no reason to call it in question.

The hydrophobia is another evil from which the Isle of France is exempt, as is likewise the Isle of Bourbon. No animal has hitherto been attacked by it. It is known that part of the South American continent (it has been said the whole) is equally happy in this exemption.

In the isle of France, M. Tombe found himself reduced to a situation of great embarrassment. The man under whose auspices he had embarked proved to be an intriguing impostor. A friend at Paris had given him letters of credit; but the persons on whom they were drawn proved insolvent, so that he found himself at 4000 leagues from Europe, without friend or acquaintance, without money, and in debt to the amount of 4,800 francs for his passage, and the freight of his effects. He sought an employment in his own profession as an engineer; but the governor, M. Magallon, could not give him one. The iman of Muscatt had sent an embassy to ask for some French officers to discipline his troops. M. Tombe offered himself, but it was refused, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the English. This was soon after the peace of Amiens; and is one among a thousand other proofs that might be given, that Bonaparte was sincerely desirous of continuing in amity with this country. He accepted therefore the place of professor in a new college which was forming, and which was to be opened immediately. He took possession of his chambers; but, behold, on the morrow, the commission of public instruction interdicts the opening of the college. A merchant then offered to make him his first clerk, to superintend his accounts, and receive his assistance in his trade. He accepted the proposal with joy, when again his fatal star pursued him. On the day, on which he entered upon his business, a partner in the concern, who had been ab-

sent, comes home, opposes the arrangement, and he is again on the wide world. At length he became a tutor in the family of a respectable inhabitant in the country, in which situation he remained contented and happy, till circumstances restored him to activity in his proper sphere, which the course of political events at length brought about.

By the peace of Amiens, Pondicherry was to be given up to the French. But the Addington administration having resolved to break the treaty, instructions were sent from England to retain the place, in consequence of which Decaen returned with the division of Linois to the Isle of France, and was there received as captain-general of the French establishments to the east of the Cape of Good Hope. From him M. Tombe received a commission of captain of engineers, and in that quality embarked on board Linois' squadron, whose exploits in the Indian seas he recounts with much complacency. The most notable of these, was the destruction of the English establishment at Bencoolen, where one vessel was captured, four or five others destroyed, the magazines pillaged of what could be carried away, and the remainder burnt. After this, the squadron departed and proceeded to Batavia, where the troops were landed, and received as auxiliaries into the Dutch service.

This course of events made M. Tombe a resident for a time on the Island of Java, and perhaps it is no more than justice to say, that the account he has given of the government, productions, inhabitants, and commerce of this island, is more full, authentic and satisfactory, than can be met with elsewhere.

One of the branches of commerce, which is no doubt familiar enough to the gormandizing vice-kings of Leadenhall-street, but which seems very strange to an untutored ear, is that of *bird's nests*. It is one of the most valuable articles of export to China. The Chinese esteem these nests as the greatest delicacy, and ascribe to it wonderful qualities as a restorative, and one of the most powerful aphrodisiacs. M. Sonnini asserts, that the swallows, which build them (*hirundo esculenta*), make use of their excrements in the preparation, and expend two months in the construction of them. The account M. Tombe gives of them, is as follows.

These nests are about half the size of a woman's hand; they are made by a very small sea swallow, and composed of a glutinous substance and the spray of the sea, mixed up with fine

mentous matter. They are found along the coasts of the isles of Sunda, and in the interior of the most perpendicular caverns and rocks. The method employed by the Indians to take them, is, this: They fix a post upon the summit of the precipices, fasten to it a ladder of ropes, and so let themselves down in the most dangerous places to search for them. These nests form a very considerable branch of commerce with China. Though they have neither smell nor taste, they have the property of heating, of giving tone to relaxed stomachs, and of awakening all the sensations; they are, in short, amongst the most powerful stimulants. They make an excellent broth, and are put into all ragouts. The excessive price they bear, will not allow the common colonist to make use of them; for they cost five and six louis a pound; the white nests are the most esteemed. To prepare them, they should first undergo three or four washings in warm water; they swell like large vermicelli, when they have been in it some time.

O, the admirable blessings of commerce! How worthily do statesmen deem it essential to the strength and happiness of nations. Here we see a company of rich Dutch merchants send their agents to live under a tropical sun in the most pestiferous climate in the world; they kidnap men, build ships, construct ports, defend them with fortifications, form alliances, and make wars, and all for what? To furnish the Mandarins of China with the excrescences of a swallow!

We have already related the mode in which trade is carried on at Madagascar, where the trader confers an honour by accepting the loan of a wife or daughter of the natives. It may be amusing to contrast this with the humiliating restraints imposed upon the Dutch traders at Japan.

* The manner of trading is very singular, since the Jesuits have been expelled from Japan, for attempting to sow discord by the propagation of their doctrines. The India Company have a resident commis on a little island (Nagazachi), at a small distance from the main land. When the ship from Batavia is at a small distance, an agent of the emperor hails her to ask of the captain, if he is a Christian; he answers, that he is a Hollander; then a signal is made for him to approach: from this moment, he is surrounded with a crowd of barks filled with armed men. First he is visited to ascertain, that he has neither women nor books; for the approach of any woman, or the introduction of any book into the island, are severely prohibited by law: a Dutch ship, which should have either on board, would be sent away instantly, without being suffered to discharge her cargo, and it would be enough to occasion a suspension of all commercial intercourse. After this visit, the goods are landed, and the vessel

is disarmed and unrigged, without the captain or his crew having any concern in it; the whole is conveyed to the land; a bill of lading is given to the emperor's agent, and a note of what is desired in exchange, and he waits for the return. They send to him, without delay, the provisions and women which he asks, and which are necessary to him, as well as for his company (their laws permit an intercourse with the women of the country.) In the interval, the captain finishes his personal affairs and his own exchanges. When all is finished, the goods brought down to the coast, and the emperor has sent an account of what he wishes to have the year following, the Japanese themselves load the vessel, arm and provision it, and restore all the arms, papers, and effects of which they took possession on its arrival. There has never been an instance of any thing being missing: in truth, probity is carried to so high a pitch in this empire, that the merchants almost always leave their shops and warehouses without guards or clerks. If a Japanese wants any thing, he goes into a shop where it is sold; if he finds nobody in it, he takes what he wants, puts in its place the value affixed to it, and goes away.

M. Tombe appears to us to be upright and well intentioned, without any design of misleading his readers; but his judgment is not very strong, he is somewhat credulous, and not very attentive in estimating the weight of evidence. We must therefore pause before we implicitly confide in this account of the great integrity of the inhabitants of Japan, a people bowed under the yoke of the two great debasers of the human race, ignorance and despotism. Whatever may be said of the manners of this people, can be collected only from hearsay and from those who are interested in extolling their own character. It appears, that the Hollanders have no real knowledge of the interior of the country, such being the jealousy of the ruling powers, that ambassadors and their suite are transported in palanquins perfectly closed, so that they are not permitted even to view the streets of the towns, or the surface of the country. The civil institutions seem to indicate a highly corrupted rather than a pure state of public morals. It is said, that all the streets of the towns are at night closed by barriers; each man is bound to answer for the conduct of his neighbour, and, moreover, if a theft or any other crime be committed, and the criminal cannot be discovered, the agents of the police belonging to the district, and the neighbours shall be obliged to restore the property, and suffer a corporal punishment; and it is even said, that the families of some are put to death. For the sake of humanity, we are willing to believe, that this last article can-

not be true; but all this jealousy, this mutual superintendence, this cruelty of punishment, this injustice in making men suffer for the crimes of others, shows, that there exists no confidence in the morality of the people; that those who know them best, are the most suspicious of them. A very active police, is, in itself, a proof of the frequency of crimes, and if they are kept down only by terror, the principle remains untouched and as vigorous as ever. Terror cannot mend the heart. It only makes men more servile, more cunning, more cowardly, and more cruel.

It has often been a matter of surprise, that the Dutch should not only have placed Batavia in so unhealthy a spot, but should never have made an effort either to change or to ameliorate its condition. Perhaps the following remark on this subject may be well founded, and if so, will go a good way towards solving this enigma.

* The policy of the Hollanders has perhaps a considerable influence on the continuation of this insalubrity. First, these marshes are a natural defence, and the English squadron which blockaded Batavia in the year seven or eight, abandoned it a short time afterwards for no other reason than the mortality which prevailed in the fleet: officers, sailors, none escaped. They lost, in short, so many in this road, that when they wished to weigh their anchors, in order to put to sea, they were obliged to unite the remaining strength of two or three frigates to effect it. When one frigate was on sail, the same operation was repeated for the others. Another motive appears to justify this negligence of the healthiness of the country; this want of salubrity prevents the resort of strangers, which would multiply too much the candidates for the fortunes which may be made. The governors and European merchants, who have fixed their residence there, are accustomed to the climate, and by living continually in the country, they secure themselves from the bad effects of this insalubrity of the air, which is destructive only to persons newly arrived, or strangers who take up a temporary abode for the sake of their commercial concerns.

A large portion of the inhabitants of Java are Chinese. M. Tombe gives us an amusing account of their religious ceremonies, the costume of the Bonzes and Bonzesses (priests and priestesses), their theatrical diversions, marriages, characters, manners, and customs.

The dresses of their priests, their genuflexions and gestures, and other mummeries, seem very analogous to the ceremonials of the popish church. Their comedies and diversions remind us of the noisy merriment of St. Bar-

tholomew fair. As this nation is so numerous at Batavia, and of a restless character, Dutch policy has taken care to furnish them plentifully with subjects to amuse their minds and distract their attention. For this purpose, their chief, who has the title of captain, is obliged to maintain at his own expence a troop of Malay girls, who are called *rono-guines*, and on the coast of Malabar and Coromandel, *bayaderes*. These girls, every day, without distinction, from nine o'clock at night till the morning, act plays in the middle of the street, in a sort of theatre built in the Chinese quarter. It is not easy for a stranger to form an idea of this comedy; but the constant subject appears to be the wars between the Tartars and Chinese.

One of their processions is in honour of the Devil. For they say, as the Supreme Deity is infinitely good, there is no need of praying to him. It is to the Devil that they ought to pray, and sacrifice, in order to amuse him, and to prevent him from offering temptations, or doing any injury to their nation. Their *Dū penates* are a large and grotesque figure painted either on paper or on the wall, representing Confucius, under the form of a monstrous Chinese, and by his side, the Devil striving to tempt him. On each side are pots of flowers, and wax tapers coloured red or gilded, and which are lighted on certain days, as well as a little lamp, hung up in the front of the *sage Cōfucius*, as in the little chapels of Catholic countries.

A favourite article of food among the Chinese, is the dog, which they fatten, and cook in a variety of ways. We wish that M. Tombe had informed us upon what they fatten them. In the islands of the South Seas, where the dog is used for food, and kept for this purpose only, they give him nothing but vegetable nutriment.

In Java, as on their native soils, the Chinese preserve their characteristic industry and commercial spirit. It is they who at Batavia have all the trades and employments in their hands; they are the house builders and ship builders, and all the details of commerce pass through them. They are very active, very ingenious, and intelligent. Give them any plan whatever, however difficult of execution, and they will succeed. But they push their presumption and vanity to the most ridiculous length. They think, that no other people on the face of the globe is their equal.

They make but miserable soldiers. Though they are cowardly and effeminate, they are, however, inclined to revolt. Their immense population makes them very restless; but

they never come to blows unless they think themselves three or four times stronger than their adversaries. They exercise equal caution in their private quarrels.

The taxes raised upon them are immense. They pay a tax, among others, to be entitled to let their nails grow very long, particularly those of their little fingers. This is a great article of luxury with them, and one which proves incontestably, that they are able to live without working.

Java produces several trees, (climbers like ivy), which exude an acrid and deleterious juice. M. Tombe thinks, that to the properties of these plants is due the report of the *bohon-upa*, a plant (according to the account given of it by a Dutch doctor), whose odour is so strong and venomous, that no plant can grow within a league and a half of it, and that all the birds which approach within the same distance, fall down dead. This account M. Tombe regards as a mere fable, and we should think, that his authority may be deemed satisfactory. His commentator, M. Sonnini, will have it, that the story must be authentic, because it has been confirmed by an English writer in the Monthly Repertory. But this writer is anonymous, and we should think, that M. Sonnini ought to be too well acquainted with the art of book making to think, that the assertions of an anonymous writer in an anonymous work can give additional weight to so improbable a tale. We can have little doubt, that Mr. C. H. the pretended English surgeon, is in reality one of the compilers of the work, and that what is called a communication, is no more than a translation from some newspaper or other work, in order to gratify the appetite of such readers as delight in the marvellous.

But a medical man, who accompanied D'Entrecasteaux in his expedition in search of La Perouse, has given a very probable solution of the miraculous tales which have been told of this tree. Among the notes of M. Deschamps, communicated to M. Walter Brun, published in his edition of Barrow's Voyage to Cochin-China, may be found the following, t. 2. p. 267.

"The *bohon-upa* is common enough in the forests of the province of Balambourg. It has the appearance of an elm, and grows to the height of thirty or forty feet. The "leaves are alternate, oval, and rough. The flowers are dioecious and axillary. The male flower, formed of a rounded receptacle, with numerous stamina, resembles that of a *dorstenia*; the female has two pistils. The fruit is rounded, and encloses a nut. When a branch of this tree is broken, a liquor exudes from it, which

quickly coagulates : this is the famous poison. Mixed with the blood, it causes almost instantaneous death. The Javanese eat the animals which have been killed by this poison with impunity.

" There is no truth in the story of the atmosphere alone of this tree being poisonous; I have myself cut branches of it. The fable that is spread on this subject, is founded on another fact. The sovereigns of Java, embarrassed by the great number of brothers which they have, in consequence of the custom of polygamy, get rid of them by banishing them, with other state criminals, to the islands on the southern coast, which are very marshy and unwholesome. As the greater part of these exiles perish, the people think, that they are killed by the exhalations of the *bohon-upa*."

Besides their great establishment of Batavia, it appears that the Dutch have a small factory on the island of Borneo: It is situated at Bagnar-Massin on the south-east side of the island. It is merely a little fort, garrisoned by about thirty European soldiers, and a few artillery men. This great island, the largest in the world before the discovery of New Holland, is still almost wholly unknown. The inhabitants are said to be nearly savage and very ferocious. Many Chinese, however, have settled upon the island, and no fewer than 40,000 of them have come at different times, who dispersed themselves in the different kingdoms of the island.

We cannot conclude our account of these volumes without observing, that their value is considerably enhanced by the notes of M. Sonnini. They relate principally to points of natural history, and contain matter, in its nature incapable of abridgment, but which we have found both amusing and instructive.

ART. XII.—*History of the Italian Republics, &c.* By
S. Sismondi. Continued from Vol. XXII. p. 531.

AFTER the establishment of the constitution in 1282 (see vol. xxi. p. 467), the republic of Florence did not remain any long time free from intestine commotions. The parties of Guelph and Gibelline were, indeed, no longer heard of, and all sources of faction from that quarter appeared to be dried up. But those ancient feudal factions had only subsided to give way to the more noble and interesting struggles between popular and aristocratic power; and Florence, to the end of the century, exhibited a picture in many respects similar to that which Rome afforded during the

most splendid eras of her republican state. In the first years of this eventful period, the people taking advantage of the remains of those dissensions which prevented the noble families from cordially uniting together, confirmed their own ascendancy by the establishment of the high office of Gonfalonier (or standard bearer) of justice, who was to be elected by every new seignory out of the commons only, and whose duty it was to be ready with the military power of the state to enforce the execution of justice whenever summoned by the priors or captains of companies for that purpose. This barrier against the ambition of the nobility was not, however, found to be effectual, as soon as the great families, awakening to a sense of their mutual advantage, consented to sacrifice their existing animosities. New attempts on the part of the latter excited new jealousies and vigilance on that of the people, and Giano della Bella, himself of a noble family, but actuated either by popular ambition or a real spirit of freedom, to espouse the cause of the democracy, becoming the leader of that party, carried into effect new laws to incapacitate the nobles from all share whatever in the supreme government of the state. This celebrated edict, or rather code of laws, which obtained the name of the ordinances of justice, disabled all the members of thirty-seven families of the first distinction in Florence, from attaining the rank and power of the priorate, without first submitting to a regular enrolment in one of the trading companies, or to the actual exercise of some profession hitherto deemed beneath the feudal pride of rank and birth.

* The members of these thirty-seven families were designated, even in the laws themselves, by the appellations of *grandees* and *magnates*; and for the first time, a title of honour was made to become not only a burthen but a punishment. Tom. iv. p. 66.

A new commotion, of which it is unnecessary in this place to enter into the details,* deprived Giano della Bella

* We must, however, relate upon the authority of the cotemporary historian, Dino Compagni, as a fine trait of republican character and illustration of that pride and severity which are remarked by Villani in the composition of this extraordinary man, that he fell a victim to some ardent and dangerous spirits among the populace, which had been so devoted to him, because he would not yield to the tide of clamour and violence which endeavoured to bear down the barriers of his inflexible justice. His answer to those who advised acquiescence, is worthy of Cato himself. 'Perish rather,' he exclaimed, 'the republic, and myself together with her, than support iniquity by little miserable private interests, and destroy true liberty by a cowardly and unmanly forbearance.'

(who appears to have been in all respects worthy of the influence he had acquired); of the popular favour, and compelled him to seek safety in a voluntary banishment. The consequences of his retreat were important to the republic, and we willingly describe them in the words of Villani, which are never introduced by our author on any occasion, without leading us most strongly to desire, that this venerable historian was rendered accessible to the English reader. We are sure, that there is no channel in which the good example set by Mr. Johnes, of Hafod, could be so beneficially and laudably followed as in that of translating this father of Italian history.

'It was a great pity for our city,' says Villani, 'and, above all, for the people; for he was the most loyal man, and the most true republican in all Florence, he who most desired the public good, and who most submitted his own interests to the interest of the state. He was, it is true, proud and revengeful, and he carried some of his acts of vengeance against the Abatté with the whole force of the people. Perhaps it was as a punishment for this fault, that, by virtue of the laws which he himself had enacted, he was condemned unjustly and by unjust judges. He became at least a great example to the citizens for the time to come, by teaching them to abstain from the wish of governing their country, and to content themselves with the equal rank of citizens. His banishment occasioned a great change in the administration of Florence; for from that time the artizans and the lower orders of the people lost all their influence over the community, and the government remained vested in the hands of the rich plebeians.' Vol. iv. p. 72.

Towards the close of the century, a private feud proved the cause of new political divisions, which did not long remain confined within the walls of the little Tuscan city, where they originated, but shortly embraced Florence and all the states of middle Italy in one general contagion.

The inhabitants of Pistoja (situate about twenty miles from Florence on the road to Lucca), were remarkable throughout Italy as

'the most violent, ungovernable, and factious people of which history has ever preserved the memorials, a people which appears to have been afflicted with an insatiable thirst for civil discord, which preserved its appetite for blood even when reduced to hold an obscure rank among the Italian states, which reposed not even under the yoke of despotism, and continued its struggles even after liberty, government, and glory

had ceased to exist; like one of Ariosto's giants, who, in the heat of the battle, forgot that he was no more.*

This unhappy state had expelled its Gibelline inhabitants and erected a popular government, under the Guelphs, about the same time that a similar revolution took place in Florence. The family of the Cancellieri, equally opulent and numerous, though nominally excluded (by reason of its noble descent), from all participation in the administration, virtually directed and influenced all its proceedings. At the time of the commencement of the feud, it was divided into two principal branches, already known by the names of the *Bianchi* and *Neri*. It happened, that several gentlemen of both parts of the family were drinking and gaming together at a tavern, when a quarrel arising, one of the *Bianchi* gave a blow to a companion of the other branch. He who had received the insult, thought only of revenge, and, in preparing for it,

'adopted an odious principle, which seems to have been constantly acted upon at Pistoja, that vengeance, in order to be complete, ought not to be apportioned to the offender; for that, if it were to fall on him alone, being only a punishment strictly due to the offence, and therefore *expected* to ensue, it would never prove a pain severe enough to answer the real purposes of revenge. The first offence had been offered to an innocent man; to make the retaliation complete, it is necessary that the second should fall upon one equally innocent.'

Actuated by this infernal motive, the monster lay in wait the same evening for a brother of him who had struck him, and falling upon him with intent to kill; cut off his hand, and wounded him in the face. Hitherto these excesses had been confined to a few hot-headed young men, whose actions could not immediately implicate their respective families; and Guglielmo, the father of the ruffian last mentioned, and one of the chiefs of Cancellieri *Neri*, anxious to repair the atrocity which had been perpetrated by his son, compelled him to submit himself to the justice of Gualfredo, the father of the first offender; but the latter, insensible to the generosity of this proceeding, re-

* Pistoja, in the year 1401, was only a subject state to Florence. In 1531, it passed with its mistress under the absolute dominion of the Medici. Yet the civil war which broke out at the end of the 15th century, continued to rage, almost without intermission, till 1539!! "*Istorie Pistoiesi dall'anno 1300 al 1548, anonime.*"

vengeed it by an act of cruelty which (as committed in cold blood), was still more enormous than the guilt for which it was inflicted; he chopped off one of the young man's hands on a manger, wounded him in the face exactly as his son had been wounded, and sent him back in this condition to his relations of the black branch, with his message—'that it is by the sword, and not by words, that wounds like those can be healed.'

Such was the horrible, but characteristic, origin of this famous feud, as it is related by the contemporary, and very curious, annalist of Pistoja. Machiavel differs in names, and omits one of the leading circumstances. Landino, in his Commentary on Dante, (canto xxxii dell' *Inferno*), varies essentially from both, attributing the first act of violence to Focaccia de 'Cancellieri, who is introduced by the annalist as an important personage in some succeeding parts of the drama.

'In the year 1300,' he says, 'there were three brothers, knights, of this family. The son of one of them was Focaccia, a youth of extraordinary boldness, but of most perverse habits. It happened, that playing one day in the snow, the father of Focaccia struck one of his nephews for hurting another of his young companions with a snow ball; and this he did only in the way of wholesome correction, as an uncle. But the lad being very headstrong, and more malicious than is common at his age, dissembled his anger for some time, and then, under pretence of whispering his uncle, hit him a violent blow on the face. His father, very much concerned at this rash action, forced the boy to go and receive such punishment as his uncle might think fit to bestow; but he considering it as a childish fault, instead of beating him, gave him a kiss and sent him home. The wicked Focaccia, however, caught him and cut off his hand; then running to the father's house (who was also his own uncle), slew him outright. From which parricide, there sprung up so great scandal, that all Tuscany was for many years afterwards troubled with it.'

Upon this occasion, however, where the authority of Landino is at variance with that of the anonymous annalist above quoted, M. Sismondi is undoubtedly right in adopting the latter even without any reference to a story of so much later date. We have ourselves quoted it in this place only as a curious illustration of the manners of the age, and indeed have little doubt that it is founded in truth, although it cannot have been the real origin of the factions of which we are speaking.

The progress of the civil war of Pistoja is of little ge-

neral consequence as far as it affected that devoted city alone. It had continued for many months with so much fury and atrocity on both sides as to threaten the extermination of both parties, and (as the Florentines began to fear), the most serious consequences to the interest of the Guelphs throughout Tuscany.

This apprehension induced them to come to the determination of interfering, to put an end to the disturbances of their neighbours, for which purpose they prevailed on the Pistoian government to decree the banishment of the chiefs of both parties, who were invited to repair to Florence and reside there during the term of their exile. The sequel of this well-intentioned, but imprudent measure, was such as might easily have been guessed in a state so prompt to faction and so recently exposed to its worst effects as Florence. The animosities of the Cancellieri were not extinguished, but on the contrary were espoused by the particular friends and connections of each party, and the names of Bianchi and Neri were soon applied to distinguish the principal rival families, all over Tuscany. The chiefs of each party in Florence, were Corso Donati, for the Neri, and Vieri (or Oliver) de' Cerchi, for the Bianchi. The former was of an ancient family in the city, and enjoyed a high degree of credit among all ranks of the people. He was vehemently suspected of aiming at the tyranny. The family of the Cerchi was also of considerable extent and importance, but they had but lately settled in Florence, having previously confined themselves to their ancient possessions in the woods of the Val di Sieve. On this account, Dante calls the Bianchi '*La parte selvaggia.*' This was the popular cause, and at first prevailed, to the discomfiture of the rival faction. Corso, with his family and friends, was expelled from his native city, and had recourse to the assistance of Pope Boniface the Eighth, who, at his intercession, invited Charles, Count of Valois, brother of the King of France, (then at Rome), to effect the restoration of the exiles and the pacification (as they call it), of Tuscany. Vieri de' Cerchi was a man of no extraordinary talent or vigour of mind, and incapable of resisting the impending danger. The Neri were re-admitted, and soon (under pretence of establishing an equality of privileges), the Bianchi were in their turn oppressed, and driven to the measure of uniting themselves with the old Gibelline exiles, hitherto equally the objects of detestation to both parties. But though united for a political end, the distinction of Guelph and Gibelline was never for-

gotten between the Bianchi and their new allies. Dante the poet was himself one of the Bianchi who adopted the measure last mentioned, and his association with the cause gives a kind of sacred interest to the history of these internal distractions, which would otherwise be altogether wanting. Farinata degli Uberti, a name ever honourable in the Florentine annals, enjoyed the principal authority and credit among the Gibellines at the time of the junction. In one of the most remarkable passages of the *Inferno*, Dante meets the shade of this illustrious man, and holds a long conversation with him, which points out very evidently the nature of the connection which subsisted between them, a connection marked on both sides with great veneration for each other's character and talents, and with strong attachment both to their mutual country and to the cause which had united them, but in which the original principle of division is never forgotten, and there is no shew of the cordiality and warmth of real friendship. Farinata indeed is made to assume a proud and cold demeanour towards his late ally, whom he reproaches with all the sins of the Guelphs in former times, and Dante is not behind in repaying his censure. The cause of Farinata's supposed damnation, however, is not so mean as the difference of party. He is found in the circle of heretics among the best and most learned Florentines of the 13th century, when a considerable degree of illumination was already shed over the darkness of the middle ages, and some superior minds had already elevated themselves above the abysses of papal tyranny and superstition.

The Neri, however, remained masters of Florence, and were enabled by the superior talents of their leaders, not only to frustrate the repeated attempts of their rivals to retrieve their defeat, but to spread the triumph of their party all over Tuscany, in Bologna, and wherever else this destructive spirit of faction had made its way. In Pisa and Arezzo, indeed, the Gibellines still maintained their ascendancy, but they had been reduced to implore peace of the Guelphs, and were therefore in no condition to disturb their peaceful sovereignty. This was the state of middle Italy, when, in 1311, the arrival of a brave, but poor, emperor of the house of Luxemburg, without soldiers and without supplies, sufficed to overthrow the whole established system.

There exists in republics an excess of the vital principle, which never suffers them to remain in the enjoyment of repose, while in monarchies anticipated death obstructs the elevation of

souls, and throws obstacles in the way of all approach to perfection. In the former, the spirit of every citizen, cast in a distinct mould, seems incapable of bending itself to one common law: it is little for it to enjoy its liberty as the member of a free body; it aspires to an independent existence, and cannot find, even in the least restrictive form of government, sufficient room for the exercise of its will, sufficient scope for the play of its passions. In a monarchy, on the contrary, when a master has once deprived the human agent of all solicitude for his political interests, he can never restore to him any of the generous passions for other objects; he can never more hope to incite him to action by any other motive than that of his immediate enjoyments; glory, power, fortune itself, (when it is to be the price of bold combinations and long perseverance), are without attraction for the subjects, and the monarch who endeavours to reanimate in a people deprived of all liberty the taste for literature and the arts, the spirit of enterprize and commerce, resembles a physician, who, by the delusions of galvanism, excites in a corpse some of those vital notions which it has for ever lost.' Tom. iv. p. 281.

These truths, which (though we are sorry to say they are somewhat obscurely expressed, through a fondness for fine metaphysical writing, which now and then clouds the historical style of our author), must (nevertheless), be sufficiently manifest to the intelligent reader, are exemplified in a striking manner by the different reception which the emperor, Henry VII. met with in his progress through Lombardy and the inland states of Italy, and that which both he and his ambassadors experienced from the Florentines and free people of Tuscany. Florence had assumed the decided character of the first and leading power among the Guelphs of Italy at the time when Pandolph Savelli and Nicholas, Bishop of Butrinto, were sent by the emperor, as his precursors, to require the oath of fealty from the Tuscan states. The account of their performance of this mission on the Florentine territory, is extracted by M. Sismondi from a very interesting narrative composed by the bishop himself, and preserved by Muratori in the ninth volume of his most valuable collection of Italian Historians. We embrace with pleasure the opportunity of presenting our readers with a detail so characteristic and authentic.

The two envoys being arrived at the Bolognese territory, demanded of the Podestà and counsellors of that republic, permission to pass through the city on their road to Tuscany. Instead of an answer, their messenger was thrown into prison; but

having found means to escape, came back to warn them of the danger they run, being then only three miles from the walls. The deputies then turned aside to take the road by the mountains, which they found covered with Florentine soldiers, so that they advanced with fear and trembling. The second night they slept at Lestri, two miles from Florence.

'Before we reached this place,' says the bishop, 'we sent before us to the Podestá, captain and other governors of the city, the same notary who had been arrested at Bologna, in order to inform them that we came as messengers of peace for the advantage of Tuscany, with letters from your holiness and from the king; and to pray, at the same time, that a lodging may be assigned to us. The magistrates having received our letters, convoked the great council, according to the custom of Florence; this council remained assembled till sun-set. Our messenger fatigued with a long delay, and having no lodging prepared for him retired, after having charged somebody present to let him know if he was called for to receive his answer. Soon after he was gone the council dispersed, and evinced by acts the answer which it had been determined to make to us. The serjeants of the city, at this late hour, were instructed to proclaim in all the public places, that we had arrived within two miles, we, the nuncios and ambassadors of that tyrant the king of Germany, who had already overthrown to the utmost of his power the Guelph party in Lombardy, and was now advancing by sea towards Tuscany, in order to destroy the Florentines and to introduce their enemies among them; that this same king sent us by land before him, us, who were priests, to overturn their country under the shadow of the church; wherefore they pronounced public sentence of banishment against our lord the king, and us his nuncios, and gave all people free liberty of annoyance to us, either in our persons or in our properties, being well certified that we brought with us large sums of money to corrupt the Tuscans and keep the Gibellines in pay. Our messenger, when he heard this proclamation, was afraid, and did not dare come out of doors or give us any intimation in person. But an old man of the house of Spini, who had been banker to Pope Honorius (the uncle of Master Pandolph, my companion), wrote us a letter, giving a full account of these things. We were already in bed and asleep, when this letter reached us; we rose without knowing what course to pursue; to return to Bologna or its territory, would be the most dangerous of all things; we knew no other road, and the lateness of the hour increased our peril. We wrote to the Podestá and captain of Florence, (who were both natives of the ecclesiastical state, one born at Radicofani, the other in the March), to ask how we were to proceed after the proclamation. The next morning we got our horses and baggage ready, and were at table still waiting the return of our

messenger and the answer, when we heard the Tocsin sound. Immediately the street was filled with armed men on foot and horseback, who surrounded our house; and a handsome fellow of the house of Magalotti, a plebeian, attempted to ascend our stairs, crying out, "kill them, kill them," but our host with his sword in his hand, prevented any person from coming up. During the tumult, our sumpter-animals and almost all our horses, were carried off by the soldiers, who at last penetrated, by difficult ways, to the stair-case, and poured into our chamber with drawn swords. Of our servants, some fled, throwing themselves out of the windows into a garden below, and among them was a friar-preacher, my companion; others hid themselves under the beds for fear of death, so that very few remained about us. But God, who delivered us out of their hands, so comforted our hearts, that, upon my conscience, I feared not at all upon my own account, although the most exposed of any. In the mean while, Florence itself was in an uproar, many saying that it was ill done to treat us in this manner, above all to refuse admittance to Master Pandolph, who was of one of the noblest families of Rome. For this reason, the Podestà sent us one of his knights, and the captain, one of the citizens; which they did at the request of the merchant of the house of Spini before mentioned, who, I believe, was called Avvocato, and who came along with them. On the road, they found some of our horses and beasts of burthen, which they led back to us, telling us at the same time, that, if we valued our lives, it was necessary for us to retrace our steps as fast as possible, leaving them to take care for the recovery of what we had lost. We then wished to have explained to them the purpose of our mission, but they refused to hear it; to shew them our credentials, but they refused to see them. We entreated that they would let us go on to Florence in the night under guard, so that we could not hold conversation with any person; but they refused this also, saying that their orders were to make us return thither from whence we came. The old Avvocato de' Spini took us apart and told us to take care how we returned by the Bolognese territory, where the people were already apprized of our expedition from Tuscany and were prepared to treat us as public enemies, in order to terrify all persons hereafter from venturing upon any part of the district comprised in the Guelph alliance. We who knew the wickedness and folly of the Bolognese, answered that we had rather die than go back the way we had come. After great deliberation among themselves, they at length put us on the road to the territories of the Conti Guidi, between Bologna, Romagna, and Arezzo. They were able to recover for us only eleven horses and three sumpter-animals: Master Pandolph lost more than I did, because he had more to lose. As for me, I was deprived of my rosary, and of all the gold and silver I had in the

world, except only the gold pen in my writing tables, and the ring on my finger.—Tom. IV. p. 321.

The war which soon afterwards ensued with the emperor is pointed out by our author, as that in which the Florentines first comprehended in their negotiations the entire politics of Italy, and placed themselves in the centre of the Guelph party as its chief. In strict alliance with the neighbouring Guelph states of Bologna, Lucca, and Sienna, they now extended their active protection and the advantages of the league of which they stood at the head, to the Guelphs of Milan, Brescia, Padua, Parma, and wherever else the party was so strong as to offer the means of a powerful opposition to the imperial influence. They even extended their negotiations to the Count of Avignon and to that of Philip le Bel, and (to use our author's remarkable language) 'appeared to have now first conceived the existence of those relations which ought to unite all the members of the European republic, and of that balance of power which ought to ensure the liberties of all.'

'It is a remarkable phenomenon,' proceeds M. Sismondi, 'that these extensive plans of policy had their first origin in a democratic republic, the government of which underwent an entire change once in every two months, and its chiefs, for the most part traders, and by their very condition strangers to the conduct of public affairs, never remained long enough in power to witness the conclusion of any negotiation they had begun. But, in a small republic, the force of life, thought, sentiment, instead of belonging to the magistracy only, is to be found in the whole mass of the people. The lords-priors of Florence were the organs, not the sources, of the national will; and the vigorous plan of policy which united to the name of the Guelph party the half of all Italy against the emperor, had been conceived and adopted by the wisdom of the people only; so effectual a change does the education which liberty furnishes, produce in the habits, the sentiments, and faculties of the whole mass of a nation.'—p. 384.

The reverse of this splendid and extraordinary picture is the total want of military skill and courage which the Florentines displayed, in common with all the free people of Italy. The practice had already obtained of trusting the defence of states entirely to mercenary forces commanded by the petty tyrants of the mountains and feudal lords of castles and villages, who had no feeling in common with the inhabitants of the cities which summoned them to their protection.

'The brutal valour of these mercenaries,' our author justly observes, 'who sold their blood to the highest bidder, and were accessible to no one noble sentiment of patriotism or liberty, had diminished, in the eyes of the Italians, that respect which is due to real courage. The Florentines saw nothing strange in their citizens and gentlemen refusing to fight like these contemptible beings, and degrade themselves, like them, to the level of blood-hounds. Without absolutely allowing an excuse for cowardice, they attached no sentiment of shame to the inferiority of valour and strength; they even avowed it, and never thought of measuring weapons with a more warlike nation, unless where a very great superiority of numbers appeared to compensate for the acknowledged inferiority of military virtue.'

This very remarkable distinction between military and civil courage, this contrast of mental firmness and personal feebleness, must always be kept in mind by the readers of Florentine history, who will otherwise be at a loss to reconcile the frequent submission of the state to some powerful prince or potentate for the sake of protection, with the independence of its civil government and the constancy with which it persevered in its grand political system. Thus, hardly had the Florentines given the striking evidence before recorded of their determination to resist to the utmost, even the bare acknowledgment, of imperial supremacy, than (finding themselves unable to oppose the emperor's power in the field), they actually bestowed the seignory of their city on the king of Naples for five years, by a decree, in which they reserved to themselves the inviolable preservation of their laws and constitution and the perpetual exclusion of their Gibelline exiles—conditions of which, even under the dominion of a powerful prince, they were confident in their own internal power and energies to enforce the fulfilment.

The emperor Henry died in the midst of his enterprises, and no further danger was to be apprehended from the imperial power; but a formidable enemy shortly afterwards arose in the person of a Gibelline warrior, named Uguccione di Fagiusla, who being called by the Pisans to the head of their government, made himself master of Lucca and threatened all the Guelphs of Tuscany with a similar fate. The Florentines, under the command of prince Philip of Tarento, the son of their new protector, opposed a brave, but ineffectual resistance to his arms at the battle of Montecatini; and they might soon have been reduced to struggle for independence within their own walls, had not a sudden revolution driven their enemy from his usurped

dominions, though it at the same time paved the way to the establishment of an abler and more fortunate antagonist in the person of the celebrated Castruccio Castracani.

At this period, all the states of Romagna and Lombardy were subjected to the despotic yoke of their tyrants, and the genius of Italian liberty seemed to be comprised within the limits of that alliance which had been formed and maintained under the auspices of the Florentine republic. Sienna, Perugia, and Bologna, were now her principal allies—Pisa and Arezzo, were Gibelline, and the whole of Romagna was attached to the same interest.

In the midst of this apparent equilibrium between the two factions, there had arisen in Lucca, at the head of the Gibelline party, a man who united artifice and dissimulation to the most uncommon military genius; who possessed the art of making himself feared by the people and cherished by the soldiers: who was able to appreciate the impotent enmities which he was at liberty to despise, the friendship and favour which it was important for him to obtain; and who appeared at all times to enjoy the power of annoying without incurring the risk of vengeance, of confiding without running the hazard of being betrayed. This person was Castruccio Castracani, tyrant of Lucca. —Tom. V. p. 76.

This remarkable character, originally a mere soldier of fortune, proved, during a course of eight years of uninterrupted prosperity (from 1320, the date of his assuming the government of Lucca to 1328, that of his death), the most formidable enemy that the cause of Italian liberty had had to encounter since the fall of the house of Swabia. He was also the first of those *Italian-born*, whose views appeared to extend to the entire subjugation of Italy. After him the 14th century beheld the same object of ambition pursued, with greater or less probability of success, by two tyrants of the house of La Scala, two or three of the Viscontis, and a king of Naples; and Florence deserves the high honour of alone preventing, in each of these several cases, the accomplishment of that object. But even in the zenith of her political glory, the defect of military skill and valour, which we have before remarked, was very conspicuous; and in order to enable her to maintain her own independence and preserve the remains of Italian liberty connected with it, she was reduced to a renewal of her former dangerous expedient of admitting for a time, the protection of a foreign power in the person of the duke of Calabria.

The year 1323 was productive of events more important to the republic than the operations of any foreign friend or foe, a change in the form of her government, a conspiracy of the nobles for the purpose of restoring the exiled Ghibellines and Bianchi was discovered; and this discovery, joined to the pressure of dangers from without, caused serious apprehensions to be entertained of the distractions likely to be produced by the then established course of *bimestrial* elections. The alteration introduced for the purpose of remedying this evil, was the nomination, at once, of all the members of the magistracy for twenty-one successive turns, that is, for a space of two-and-forty months. Out of the members so nominated, a choice was made *by lot*, at the expiration of every two months until the whole was exhausted, and then a fresh nomination took place.

'This new method,' says our author, 'seemed to be more democratic than the preceding; it established a greater equality among the candidates, and called a greater number of citizens to the enjoyment of the public honours. Out of the number thus constituted, there could in fact be little room for choice; almost every citizen had the certainty of filling some office in his turn. The electors often admitted men absolutely incapable, who would never have been appointed, had they had to enter immediately on the charge to which they were chosen. The intrigues of a canvass were put an end to; but, with them, a stop was put to emulation, to the fear of popular censure, and the desire of obtaining the popular suffrage by talents and by virtues. Many causes, without doubt, tended to the corruption of manners among the Italian republics; but it is worthy of remark that, at the period of the introduction of chance into elections, the citizens renounced the profession of arms; the chiefs of the state abjured the study of the military art, and trusted the defence of their liberties to mercenary captains and troops. At the same period, luxury, effeminacy, and corruption, were introduced into families, and public morals were contaminated by the adoption of a false and perfidious policy. Nevertheless, the talents of the republicans survived the decay of their virtues; six or eight hundred citizens, continually changed by lot, before they had even time to serve their apprenticeship to state-affairs, pursued with constancy, and often with ability, the same projects, and the same principles; and Florence evinced to the world, that she individually possessed a greater number of profound politicians than could be collected together in the most extensive kingdom. Thus, Athens elected ten generals every year; while Philip thought himself happy in having discovered, throughout the whole course of his life, one general in Macedonia.'—Tom. V. p. 96.

The very fortunate illustration contained in the last sentence of the above quotation, calls us forcibly to a comparison which it is impossible for the reader of Florentine history not to keep constantly in sight, and which (of course) could not have escaped the notice of our author.

'A new epoch of grandeur and glory,' he says, 'commenced from the death of Castruccio; from the moment when Florence was delivered from this formidable enemy, she assumed the ascendancy over the rest of Italy by the vigour of her councils and the depth of her policy. Always ready to protect the feeble and the oppressed, always prepared to oppose an unconquerable resistance to tyrants, the seignory of Florence considered itself as guardian of the political balance of Italy, and as especially charged to preserve their independence for sovereigns, and for the people the governments of their choice. One must look into the character of a nation for the habitual motions and conduct of its government, above all, if it is democratic. The distinctive qualities of the Florentines rendered them fit for the brilliant part to which they were called, and THE ATHENS OF ITALY recalls the memory of her Grecian forerunner, as much by the genius of her people as by the monuments of their art.

'The Florentine was acknowledged to possess the most subtle spirit of all the people of Italy; in society he was an humourist and seized with acuteness upon every point of ridicule; in business, his perspicuity taught him sooner than any others, the most direct road for the attainment of his purposes, and enabled him to appreciate with the most exactness the advantages and disadvantages of every measure; in politics, he divined the projects of his enemies, he foresaw in time the consequences of their movements and the progress of events. At the same time, his character was more firm, and his conduct more moderate, than so much vivacity of spirit would lead an observer to expect. He was slow in resolve; he undertook dangerous enterprises not till after mature deliberation; and, when once engaged in them, he persisted in his determinations with immovable constancy in spite of unexpected failures. In literature, he knew how to join vivacity with force of reason, gaiety with philosophy, and pleasantry with the sublimest meditations. The depth of his character had preserved his enthusiasm, and his taste was formed upon his natural humour. "But, what distinguished the people of Florence even more than its genius for the fine arts, more than its literary talent, was its unalterable love of liberty," a passion which extended itself beyond the bounds of ordinary selfish feeling, a spirit which not only "presided over the formation of its constitution," but "directed the conduct of its government abroad as well as at home," and urged it, "immediately on escaping from the dangers of a foreign yoke, to form

the resolution of delivering their neighbours" and the other nations of Italy which still retained the sense and desire of freedom.' Tom. V. 169, &c. &c.

This glowing picture may perhaps be suspected of exhibiting some of the author's prepossessions in favour of republican liberty; and it is, we believe, impossible to find in any historian warm and generous feeling united with strict impartiality. The most that is reasonably to be expected is an inflexible regard to truth in the relation of facts. Without this sacred observance, history becomes mere romance; but if we go beyond it, and demand a total absence of all those sensibilities which seem to identify the historian with the persons and events of which he writes, we shall degrade it yet lower in the scale of moral interest and advantage. A well-conducted and probable romance is, for the purposes of instruction, ten times to be preferred before a cold and dry abstract of chronology. Those are the most melancholy portions of history on which the writer dwells without any of those generous and animating sentiments which force him to take an interest in some particular cause or party. This is finely expressed by M. Sismondi, when, in speaking of the factions of Italy, he says,

'It is a merit in a *contemporary* historian that he knows how to impose silence on the passions which agitate all things around him, and to distribute a severe justice between the parties, without respect of persons; but when the persons are dead and the factions which disturbed them annihilated, when no present interest is connected with questions long since abandoned, justice and virtue only can determine our choice between the parties; and it is then that the historian and his reader are equally grieved at the necessity of remaining impartial.'

The next great danger to the cause of general independence arose from the enterprises of Mastino della Scala. The Florentines kept a watchful eye upon the designs of that prince from the commencement of his career, but it was not till, by an infamous series of intrigues, he had acquired the dominion of Lucca, that they found the alarm so immediate as to call for their armed opposition. It was in the year 1336 (as we have before remarked) that they engaged Venice in the first continental alliance into which she had ever entered; but about the same time that they thus took every wise and politic precaution for the defence of themselves and their cause, their

personal fears urged them to the adoption of an experiment, which their frequent submission to foreign princes rendered less revolting to their feelings, but which nevertheless might have proved in the hands of a skilful player, the subversion of all which they valued and laboured to preserve. This experiment was the appointment of a magistrate with full dictatorial powers; but fortunately for Florence, Gabriel d'Agobbio, the person to whom this most dangerous prerogative was entrusted, proved himself in the very commencement of the office, so wholly destitute of common prudence as well as common integrity, that he was degraded and his charge abolished almost as soon as it was created;

‘the people having learned by this short and wholesome lesson that liberty is not to be upheld by the resources of despotism, and that to erect a power superior to the laws, even though intended for their preservation, is but to prepare their overthrow.’

But the result of this experiment, though it prevented them from again making a dictator of a private citizen, did not sufficiently open their eyes to the dangers arising from their old practice of committing the defence of their city to a foreign potentate. The attempt of Walter de Brienne, Duke of Athens, and lieutenant to the Duke of Calabria, in Florence, to make himself master of their liberties and erect an absolute despotism on the ruins of them, and the temporary success of his machinations, might have taught them a yet more wholesome lesson. But the consequent expulsion of the tyrant sufficiently proved that, amidst all their errors and imprudencies, they had never lost a particle of the proud republican spirit of their ancestors. This was, however, the severest blow to their national importance that it had ever yet sustained; and we must refer our readers (having little room left us for farther quotation) to the very clear and striking *exposé* of the relative state of Florence before the arrival of the Duke of Athens, and after his expulsion, (contained in the 36th chapter of this history, tom. V. p. 364, &c.) as a most instructive lesson both of the evils of tyranny, and of the elasticity of a free constitution to survive and repair the losses which a state of despotism has occasioned.

The year 1351, which witnessed the final extinction of the greatness of the la Scala dynasty, beheld Florence, *alone and unsupported*, in arms against the increasing and already formidable power of the Visconti. Bologna (her ancient ally) had already fallen under the yoke of that

ambitious family; and the lords of Milan were united in strict league with all the petty tyrants of the Tuscan territories. This is unquestionably the proudest era of the Florentine history. Taught at last, by the cruel lessons of experience, to rely on their own energies for their own protection, they alone withstood, and alone effectually checked the progress of John d'Oleggio, the conqueror of Bologna, at the head of all the forces which the Visconti could send against them. The siege of Scarperia, a little fortress in the Appenines, delayed for two months the operations of the whole invading army, and was at last abandoned with disgrace. One of the two brave citizens to whom the preservation of this place, and probably that of the liberties of Florence, was principally owing, was of the family of the Medici, hitherto hardly noticed in the public annals of the city, but destined in less than a century afterwards to become her chief glory and support, and, again one century later, her absolute sovereign. After the glorious termination of this campaign, Florence again found herself at the head of a league as powerful as that which arrested the progress of the La Scalas. Bologna, indeed, was wanting; but the warlike people of Arezzo had expelled their tyrants and acceded to the confederacy.

Meanwhile the Florentines, disgusted with the evils of tyranny, ran headlong into extremes hardly less prejudicial, in their anxiety to guard against the possibility of their recurrence. Among the several popular laws which were introduced from this motive into the constitution, that of the *divieto* deserves particular notice; by which no two persons of the same name could at the same time fill any of the more considerable offices of the state.* Now, as the ancient families were excessively numerous, many of them (like some of the old Scottish clans) sufficient to constitute distinct nations among themselves, and on the other hand, the new and upstart people scarcely knew their descent and had even ceased to bear the appellations of their ancestors, it is evident that the whole exclusion of this preposterous law fell upon the former, and by far the most respectable, class of the community, and the government passed by degrees altogether into the hands of men wholly destitute either of credit or capacity for pub-

* A similar absurdity is perhaps nowhere to be met with except in the most absurd of all constitutions, that of China, by which marriages between persons of the same name (not family) are strictly prohibited.

lic affairs. Another consequence resulted from the law in question, which could not have been foreseen by its advisers. The old party violence between Guelph and Gibelline which had almost become extinct during the earlier half of the century, broke out again in consequence of the fresh fuel which had been heaped upon it during the progress of the Visconti. All the favourers of that powerful and ambitious race were now Gibellines, all their opposers Guelphs. Now, of the old Florentine exiles, numbers had returned under cover of the growing indifference of both parties, with new names and devoid of all pretensions to ancestry and ancestral distinctions, which would have rendered them obnoxious to the existing government. But, by means of the *divieto*, it is manifest that these regenerated citizens enjoyed great advantages in the popular elections; and the discontented members of the ancient Guelph families, soon discovered how they might avail themselves of this unforeseen circumstance, and industriously contrived to raise a clamour (which the then state of affairs rendered very formidable) 'that the offices of state were filled with the banished Gibellines.' This artifice succeeded, not indeed to the repeal of the *divieto*, but to the enactment of another law, still more unjust, and dangerous. New officers of state were established, whose business it was to examine and inquire into the circumstances of all candidates for public places, and those whom they reported to be Gibellines, or suspected Gibellines, were thereupon to be peremptorily excluded by an *admonition* of the supreme government.

'Thus,' says our author, 'while the constitution had laboured to establish a perfect equality among all orders of citizens, two opposite parties sought mutually to deprive each other of all their respective privileges, the *divieto* being the instrument employed for the exclusion of the ancient, and the *ammonizione* for that of the new, families.'

Their internal struggles, however, did not subdue their spirit of public freedom, nor check the new military ardour which the glory of 1351 had excited. The year 1359 beheld them again alone and unsupported in their military operations, involved in a contest no less honourable, but of a more romantic and chivalrous cast, than any of the preceding. We have found no room to give to the details of mere military exploits, or to the history of war as a regular progressive science among the Italians; and we must now confine ourselves shortly to stating that in

consequence of the system adopted by all the Italian powers of engaging mercenary troops in their service, the whole country had been at various periods exposed to the merciless ravages of hordes of disbanded ruffians from Germany, France, and England, as well as of those Italians themselves, who, unconnected by ties of affection or duty with any of the principal governments of Italy, let themselves out at hire to each of them alternately, and, when dismissed at the close of a war, lived by rapine and plunder on all alike. Previous to the period at which we are now arrived, great numbers of these dissolute and lawless adventurers had united together under brave and experienced leaders, by the name of The Grand Company, who, after ravaging by turns the territories of the King of Naples, the Pope, and the petty sovereigns of Romagna, and being bought off by all of them, one after another, at enormous prices, which only served to strengthen their force, and augment their insolence and rapacity, now threatened the rich plains of Tuscany with one of their dreadful visits. This visit the republic of Florence nobly determined, not to avert by composition, but to resist by force. For this purpose they first resorted to a treaty of alliance with their enemies the Visconti, a treaty which the latter entered into only with sinister views, and fulfilled with the most consummate treachery. Florence, however, proceeded undismayed to the contest; and, by the able conduct of Randolph Malatesta her general, not more than by the wisdom and constancy of her own councils and firmness of her citizens, acquired the honour of first teaching the Italians how to subdue the plague which their own vices had introduced among them, and of effectually liberating herself and all the Tuscan states from the danger by which they were menaced.

We shall not dwell upon the less noble and disinterested wars which were carried on by the republic of Florence against that of Pisa and other states of Tuscany during several following years. The only circumstance which can render the history of these transactions at all interesting to an English reader, is the part which was borne in them by a very celebrated adventurer of our nation, Sir John Hawkwood, whose name is perhaps the most distinguished of any among the condottieri of the fourteenth century. In the year 1370, we again enjoy the gratifying spectacle of this illustrious people, again at the

head of all the Tuscan states, combined for the preservation of their general independence against the enterprises of Barnabo Visconti.

The next public war in which we find the republic engaged, although she appears in it at the head of a party directly opposed to that of her ancient alliances, affords a more convincing proof, perhaps, than any other portion of her history, that she was uniformly actuated by the most noble and disinterested principles, and that, however, in the course of the long contest between Guelph and Gibelline, her conduct may seem to place her in the light of a decided partizan, she was in fact so no longer than the great cause of Italian independence demanded it of her. The violent and unjust aggressions of the papal legates gave rise to just apprehensions for the safety of that noble and patriotic cause, and consequently to a new league in which the Florentines were united with the Visconti. On this memorable occasion many cities of the ecclesiastical state voluntarily offered absolute submission to the yoke of Florence; but that republic, with a grandeur of spirit which is perhaps unexampled in the history of nations, refused their offer, and sent them as their only answer the standard of liberty with an exhortation to erect it in support of their individual independence. At the same time she obeyed the citation of the church by sending three ambassadors to plead her cause at Avignon.

‘Nothing,’ declared Donato Barbadori, the first of these deputies, ‘nothing could have engaged the Florentines to take arms against the church, except the defence of their liberty; but we,’ he added, ‘who have already enjoyed this liberty for almost four hundred years, we have so engrafted it on our very nature, it is become so dear to our hearts, that there is not one of us who is not ready to sacrifice his life for its preservation.’

Towards the close of the century, the enterprises of John Galeas Visconti again united Florence with her ancient allies; and Italy again owed her independence entirely, under providence, to the exertions of that illustrious republic. At the commencement of this war, when the forces of Visconti seemed sufficient to ensure the success of his ambitious designs, and to bear down all the means and possibilities of opposition, the Florentines implored the assistance of Charles the Sixth of France. That king offered them the most powerful succour, under two conditions; the first, their acknowledgment of Cle-

ment VII. as the lawful pope, the other, the payment of an annual tribute, however inconsiderable, in token of homage. These conditions were proudly rejected as contrary, the one to conscience, the other to liberty; and the republic, rather than buy a great alliance at such a price, preferred to trust to her single strength for the result of the impending contest.

Such are the leading traits in the public history of Florence during the fourteenth century. Meanwhile some other changes, still in favour of popular freedom, had taken place in her internal condition: but it would be in vain to endeavour to analyze them within the limits which yet remain to us. We prefer giving the general character of the state in the words of our eloquent historian; and no reader, after the detail which we have now afforded, will hesitate to concur in the justice of his eulogy.

'Florence, no less powerful than Venice or Genoa, filled a part yet more important in the history of Italy, because this continental republic was attached in all its interests to that country in the midst of which it was situated, while the two maritime states directed almost all their strength and their attention to foreign regions. The politics of all Italy were agitated in the councils of Florence, and that people, so zealous for liberty, supported not only their own, but that of the whole nation of which they formed a part. They only seemed to have conceived the importance of a political balance, and to have calculated the dangers of universal monarchy. During the whole of the century, Florence possessed a government purely democratical; not that the people had all the powers of state in their own hands, or could at will alter the constitution; but they influenced the administration in the greatest degree that is politically possible, greater perhaps than it is politically wise to permit. The greater part of the citizens of all ranks was called in turn to the first offices of government; the councils, numerous, and composed in a popular manner, represented constantly the will of the nation; and, if there existed among the people a party in opposition to government, it is, because it is essential to free deliberation that there should be a minority, and because the whole nation deliberated like a council of state on public affairs.'

The Florentine historians, our safest guides in the history of Italy, have so initiated us into all the details of the administration and policy of the republic, they have brought us so intimately acquainted with all the passions of the people, and all the sentiments of individuals, that,

in the course of a century, we could not but have frequently seen the spectacle of criminal enterprises among the citizens, or pernicious errors on the part of the government. But on casting a general glance over the whole period, and recollecting the leading features of all that we have witnessed, we shall without doubt acknowledge the conduct of the Florentines to have been just, noble, and generous, more than that of any other nation, and we shall agree that that government which, among the states of Italy, admitted the greatest portion of public liberty, was also the most wisely and virtuously administered.

‘ During a century fruitful in revolutions, in which ambition, let loose in all the other states, employed without remorse every artifice of baseness and fraud for its aggrandizement, such was uniformly the conduct, free, just, courageous, but at the same time temperate and prudent, of a republic in which the first magistracy was confined to a duration of two months, and a thousand citizens were constantly deliberating on the conduct of public affairs. National glory is then truly the property of a people, when it is, as at Florence, the fruit of the public virtue rather than the reward of an able administration; and that nation may with justice be proud of its own conduct, which, amidst a continual change of governors, preserves itself ever in one firm and unalterable career of magnanimity and justice.’—Tom. viii. p. 35—42.

The eighth volume brings us thirty years forward in the events of the fifteenth century. But we purposely reserve all consideration of its contents till the time, which we trust will not be slow in arriving, when M. Sismondi shall have completed the extensive task which he has proposed to himself to perform. There is no occasion for our making any general observation in this place on the merits of a work which has already received the willing and ample tribute of our praise. But we should quit it with infinite regret, could we believe that the literary jealousies of the French government, however they may for a time impede its progress, would ultimately prevail to occasion its abandonment.

ART. XIII.—*De la Defense des Places fortes*

On the Defence of fortified Places; drawn up by Order of the Emperor Napoléon, for the Use of young Engineers. By M. Carnot, formerly Officer of Engineers, Member of the Institute and of the Legion of Honour, &c. &c. 1 vol. 8vo. pp. 528. Paris, 1810, Courcier; London, Deboffe.

THIS book comes recommended to our notice by two singular circumstances. The name of Carnot stands sufficiently high in the regions of science and literature to command attention to any production of his pen, but when we are informed that his present performance was undertaken by express command of the most successful military hero of the age, the interest arising from its perusal must be considerably increased.

In the title-page our author presents his readers with an axiom or motto which he assumes as the basis of his dissertation. 'For the defence of fortified places, valour and industry are not sufficient of themselves; but when united they can effect every thing.' Hence our author infers that it is the duty of an officer who is entrusted with the defence of a place, not only to form a resolution to perish rather than surrender it, but to be acquainted with all the means which industry can furnish for its defence.

M. Carnot accordingly divides his work into two parts, and sums up the whole with an interesting memoir, in which he suggests an entirely new method of defending fortified places.

To those who are in the least acquainted with the merits of our author, it will be unnecessary to point out the perspicuous arrangement which marks his writings in general, and we shall endeavour to make his superiority in this respect still more apparent by our present sketch of his *Defense des Places fortes*.

After reminding his juvenile readers of the duties which their country expects from them, and enumerating the French military edicts which are applicable to those entrusted with the defence of fortresses, the author proceeds to shew the importance of these places to a country.

Fortifications for the defence of the frontiers, ought never, according to M. Carnot, to be erected at random, but ought always to have some specific object in view.

While some ought to protect from insult a sea-port, an arsenal or a depot of merchandise or provisions, others ought to be so situated as to ward off any sudden attack and arrest the progress of the enemy on a great road, through the passes of mountains or in crossing a river. They ought also to be resorted to as necessary for covering the flanks and rear of an army, and for securing ammunition and provisions so as to enable it to prosecute the operations of a campaign with adequate resources.

Marshal Saxe having hazarded an opinion in his writings, that where there were inhabitants (*Bourgeoisie*) there should be no fortifications, and that the operations of a siege should be confined to mere fortified camps, capable of containing troops only, M. Carnot combats the idea in the following manner:

It would be worth while perhaps to discuss the merits of this system, if it was in contemplation to erect fortified places in new situations, but we ought not to destroy those which already exist in order to adopt a new mode of warfare, which has its disadvantages also. The menaces of an enemy, bombardments, feints, and partial attacks, generally bespeak his inability to make a regular attack: all these efforts ought to be treated with contempt by the besieged. If a place is not defended to the last extremity, it is a matter of indifference whether it is ill or well fortified. The real dangers and difficulties of a siege commence at the glacis. The defence of the breaches being the most critical and sanguinary for the besiegers, is also the most likely operation by which the garrison can repulse them.

These and many other similar propositions are developed in detail by M. Carnot, and supported by historical facts collected with great industry.

The ancients defended their cities to the last extremity. The walls of one fortification frequently contained the whole population of an empire; one battle fought in the plains was generally decisive, and the capital to which the vanquished party retired with their most valuable effects, was held out to the last moment. The sieges of Troy, Nineveh, Babylon, &c. are alluded to by M. Carnot as cases in point.

The Greeks, Romans, and Carthaginians understood better how to connect the attack and defence of their fortified places with the general system of the war: among them sieges went on step by step with the other operations of the campaign, and were as memorable as their battles.

The increase of fortified places among the moderns has

obtained a greater security for the interior of a country, and the destiny of a nation no longer depends on the issue of a single battle. It is of the utmost importance however that the officer who is entrusted with the defence of a fortress should be a man of approved bravery and talents. M. Carnot laments that these appointments were formerly given 'as retreats to worn out officers who were no longer able to support the fatigues of an active campaign; while the garrison was composed of veteran battalions or raw recruits.' To these circumstances he ascribes, and we fear with too much justice, the fall of some of the strongest places in Europe, and the subsequent overthrow of those princes, whose ideas of military tactics had so garrisoned them.

M. Carnot next demonstrates that in every siege the advantage in favour of the besieged is as 1 to 10. A garrison of 10,000 men properly supplied with ammunition and provisions, is therefore sufficient to repulse 100,000 besiegers. But every thing depends upon the conduct and intelligence of the commander, and upon this subject M. Carnot judiciously observes:

'It is not upon one brilliant achievement that his success will depend; but properly speaking, upon an uninterrupted series of splendid actions. It is not enough that a military governor is lavish of his personal services; he must also possess the art of inspiring zeal in those around him; he will have occasion for the greatest coolness and the most intense application to foresee and to direct every thing, while activity ought to sparkle in his eyes: he must animate every one with his voice, and electrify every person with his presence: his visage must inspire confidence, give courage to the pusillanimous, and awe the disaffected.'

The military services of M. Carnot under the French republic qualify him to treat his subject occasionally *con amore*, and it is amusing to find this sober mathematician raising his voice as it were, and glowing with exultation at the recollection of the military operations of his youth. After a modest allusion to the campaign of 1793, when at the head of the victorious French columns, he raised the siege of Maubeuge, he proceeds:

* Enthusiasm must animate every breast. Every prodigy of valour is owing to a kind of exaltation. In ancient times, when a whole nation defended the capital, this exaltation was excited by imperious necessity, the first of laws. Among the Greeks and Romans, patriotism was the motive to their bravery; at the time

of the Crusades, it arose from the mixed emotions of piety, honour, and gallantry: the history of the league has shewn us what fanaticism and the spirit of faction can effect; while the sieges of Calais, Orleans, &c. prove that loyalty to a prince may also become a great and generous passion.

M. Carnot exposes the absurdity of all calculations as to the probable duration of a siege, founded upon the reciprocal progress of the attack or defence, or upon the quantity of provisions or ammunition within the place. He shews how often these calculations have been belied by the histories of sieges, and dwells upon the advantages to the besieged from frequently provoking a close combat with their besiegers in the trenches, or at a narrow breach.

In the following passage we may regard the author as speaking the language of his master, Napoleon:

‘Patriotism, glory, and true honour, are elements which can never enter into any calculation: bravery is far above all the rules which the square or the compass can lay down, and his majesty, who has so frequently shewn how well he knows the true method of bringing into action the secret springs of this moral power, wishes that what has formerly been regarded as the exception, may now be the rule itself. His majesty listens to no calculations in which that is neglected even as an accessory, which ought to form the principal buttress: he disapproves of a theory which incessantly brings before the eyes of a garrison the event of their surrender: he wishes that every defender should be animated with the hopes of victory: every other calculation is in his eyes an abuse of science. *His majesty has formally commanded the author to refute such antiquated doctrines.*’

M. Carnot proceeds to shew that such doctrines were incompatible with the notions of military warfare entertained during the reigns of Louis XIII. and XIV. and concludes the first part of his work with holding up to the eyes of his military readers all the terrors of disgrace and punishment. An account of the most remarkable courts martial on commanders, who were accused of surrendering their posts too easily, brings up the rear of this division of his work.

Hitherto our author has treated his subject in a theoretical point of view: he now proceeds to the practical part, illustrating his precepts by the examples of the most memorable sieges of ancient and modern times. He repeats that the advantage has always been on the side of the besieged when they had opportunities of engaging

hand to hand with their besiegers. All the efforts of the Athenians upon Syracuse were thus rendered abortive. Veii, the rival of Rome, required a ten years' siege before it surrendered; and it called for all the rash valour of Alexander to reduce Tyre after a seven months' resistance; the sieges of Saguntum, Carthage, Numantia, Jerusalem, and Palmyra, are similar examples of the effects of a vigorous defence against a victorious enemy.

Every nation in Europe has been more or less distinguished for brilliant sieges: sometimes the intrepidity of a single individual has decided the event. A common soldier of the name of Gombaut, of the middle size, but of uncommon courage, followed by five men as brave as himself, saved Paris from a most desperate and final assault of the Normans. Charles de Blois raised the siege of Hennebon, the defence of which was conducted by a female, the celebrated Countess de Montford. Duguesclin made his first effort of bravery at the siege of Rennes, succeeding in introducing arms and provisions when it was attacked by the English, and thereby becoming its deliverer. Orleans and France were saved by Joan of Arc. In short M. Carnot has collected accounts of forty sieges of modern times, in order to illustrate his positions, and concludes by recommending to the perusal of every military reader, the *Journal* published by Marshal Massena of the blockade of Genoa as a monument of what can be effected by bravery and skill.

The last three chapters of the second part consist of instructions for acquiring an accurate knowledge of the fortress to which an officer is appointed, in peace or in war, but more particularly on the eve of a siege. As soon as they arrive at their post, the commandant and the officers of artillery ought jointly to study the properties, the site, the form of the works, and their respective connection with each other. If the place is in the centre of hostile operations, they must take defensive precautions, and examine into the strength of the garrison, and the state of their provisions and ammunition. In the event of a siege their measures must be guided by the circumstances which arise, and the author takes care to point out all the operations which are likely to put the defence on a reciprocity with the attack. His general conclusion is couched in the vain glorious language so common to the military writers of modern France:

'From what has been said I think the soothing assurance

evidently results, that the barriers of the French empire are absolutely impregnable against any power or coalition of powers, if they are well defended; and that a good garrison in one of our fortresses, animated with a noble desire to signalize itself by a memorable defence, may, as long as provisions and ammunition last, make head against an army ten times as numerous, and even threaten it with destruction if it persists in the siege.

The additional memoir to which we have alluded at the beginning of this article, points out the advantages of firing vertically from a besieged place. According to M. Carnot, a soldier who fires his musket from behind a parapet, is under the necessity of exposing his person considerably, while the situation of the gunners is not less dangerous; and horizontal firing wastes the shot upon the enemy's works. If instead of firing horizontally, the soldier should fire his piece at an angle of 45° , and if instead of the common battering gun, the mortar was used at the same angle, embrasures would be no longer necessary; all the business would be done below the parapet, and under the protection of blinds.

M. Carnot does not think however that his favourite plan can be adopted until the establishment of the third parallel, because the shot when fired vertically would not tell sooner. From this time to the opening of the breaches, ten and even twenty or thirty days elapse; but in ten days, calculating upon the effect of six howitzers, loaded with grape, 20,000 men will be put *hors de combat*, and it may be fairly concluded that a place defended in this manner might defy all besiegers.

We have now given such a sketch of the contents of this valuable work as we trust will induce some man of science of our own country to turn M. Carnot's laborious investigation to our advantage, by adding its precepts to our own stock of tactics—*Fas est et ab hoste doceri.*

DIGEST OF ENGLISH LITERATURE
FOR THE LAST FOUR MONTHS.

HISTORY.

MR. MANN'S 'Present Picture of New South Wales,' hardly merits a place under this denomination; but it contains some important particulars relative to the present state of that distant colony. We rejoice to think that the vices of England are, in many instances, likely to become virtues, by being transplanted to the south of the Equator. Nor have we much less satisfaction in reflecting that our mother tongue will probably be one day diffused over the vast, and still, in a great measure, unexplored region of New Holland. Mr. Archdeacon Hingworth's 'Topographical Account of the Parish of Scampton, in the County of Lincoln, and of the Roman Antiquities lately discovered there,' is very creditable to the research and talents of the writer. Lord de Dunstanville has rendered an acceptable service to the public by the republication of 'Carew's Survey of Cornwall,' with the valuable additional matter which was collected by the industry of Mr. Tonkin. Mr. James Peller Malcolm's 'Anecdotes of the Manners and Customs of London,' &c. contain some amusing matter; but thrown together without taste or discrimination. M. Bertrand de Moleville's 'Chronological Abridgment of the History of England' is worthy of attention, not merely from the regard for historical truth which it exhibits, but as it evinces, though with numerous defects, the proficiency of a foreigner in English composition. Much light is thrown on the constitution and mechanism of the present despotism of Bonaparte in Mr. Faber's 'Sketches of the internal State of France.' Bonaparte seems to have omitted no possible contrivance of art to consolidate his tyranny, and to render it perpetual. But we may console ourselves with the reflection that the nature of man, and the constitution of the world are so wisely ordered, that perpetuity neither is, nor ever can be one of the attributes of tyranny. Perpetuity is the character of truth, but not of falsehood or injustice.

BIOGRAPHY.

Hardy's 'Memoirs of the Earl of Charlemont' are a valuable work. They exhibit a pleasing picture of the patriotic life of Lord Charlemont, with interesting sketches of many of his political contemporaries. Mr. Todd's 'Illustrations of the Lives and Writings of Gower and Chaucer,' are entitled to the praise of industry and research. We have given in our number for May a very full account of the life of Apollonius of Tyana, which has been lately translated from the Greek by the Rev. Edward Berwick. The version of Mr. Berwick is, in general, perspicuous and elegant. It is a work which is little known to the English reader; but it well deserves attention from the many curious details, which it contains on the philosophy, the manners, and history of the times in which Apollonius lived. Mr. Jesse Foote's life of Arthur Murphy, Esq. is not destitute of occasional interest, though it is, on the whole, a rambling and desultory performance. In his elegant Essay on the Life of Petrarch, Lord Woodhouselee has most ably and successfully attempted to rescue the memory of that poet from an imputation very injurious to his memory, and which amongst those by whom it is believed, must excite a prejudice against his writings. Chandler's 'Life of William Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester,' will, in many particulars, be gratifying to the scholar and the antiquary. To those persons, who have been educated at Magdalen College in Oxford, and have partaken of the benefits of that noble foundation, it will be perused with a peculiar interest, which in a bosom of sensibility will be mingled with the feeling not only of admiration but of gratitude.

POLITICS AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

In the introduction to his translation of the Prince of Machiavel, Mr. J. Scott Byerley has shewn himself rather too prone to panegyryze the measures, and to extol the policy of Bonaparte. The principle of that policy appears to consist in a rejection of all moral restraint, whenever it contravenes his ambition or his interest. His code of government includes the deliberate violation of all those ties of probity and humanity which are most respected in private life, and which the good and wise in all ages and times have concurred in considering as most essential to the happiness of mankind. Mr. Dillon of Lincoln's Inn has manifested his good sense and moderation

in his 'Two Memoirs upon the Catholic Question.' The 'Constitution for the Spanish Nation,' which has been drawn up by Alvaro Florez Estrada, and translated by Mr. Burdon, is the product of an enlightened mind, and of a true lover of liberty. Whether, considering the discordant elements of which political communities are composed, such a theory could be reduced to practice, is a question not easy to be resolved. In proportion as nations advance in civilization, they will certainly become susceptible of higher degrees of civil liberty. But how are we to determine the highest degree of liberty of which a nation is at any particular period susceptible? This can be done only by experiment, but how dangerous are such experiments! and dangerous as they are, nations have seldom any opportunities of making them, except in periods of public turbulence and convulsions, when all the passions are let loose to blind the judgment, and to darken the moral horizon of man! The author of 'A brief Statement of the Proceedings of both Houses of Parliament upon several Bills introduced with a view to the Amendment of the Criminal Law,' has given a lucid summary of the arguments, which have been used on both sides of this important question, with some judicious original remarks. 'The Theory of Money; or, a practical Inquiry into the present State of the circulating Medium,' &c. contains many just and striking observations on that intricate branch of political economy. The author is particularly happy in dissipating the delusion which has so long prevailed respecting what is called the *balance of trade*. This word, when made the burthen of the financial song of the minister of the day, has sometimes operated like a charm on the popular credulity; and the nation has fondly indulged the dream of visionary wealth.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

Mr. Vaughan's 'View of the present State of Sicily,' contains a variety of important statistical details respecting that island. The 'Travels through Denmark and Sweden,' by M. Louis de Boingelin, are the work of a patient inquirer, and constitute a very readable book, though they do not contain much novelty of matter or sagacity of remark. We accompanied Mr. Jacob with great pleasure in his 'Travels in the South of Spain.' Of the several recent travels in that part of the world, we have not perused any with so much interest as his. His work bears testimony to the patriotic spirit which prevails amongst

the lower orders of people in that country; and if it had been energetically seconded by the higher clergy and the nobles, the peninsula must, long since, have been emancipated from the grasp of the French. But the exertions of the people have been paralysed by the indolence, the imbecility, or the treachery of the government.

POETRY.

We are unwilling to take Mr. Jerningham's 'Old Bard's Farewell' in the literal sense of the words, or as a fixed determination no more to woo the muse. Though his harp is at present hung up on the willows, we trust that it will again be taken down to warble some sweet and simple notes before it is for ever unstrung. In his 'Carmina selecta, tum Græca, tum Latina,' Mr. Paul Jodrell jun. has evinced his depth and variety of classical learning, and, allowing for some juvenile errors, his correct and polished taste. The complete edition of the poetical works of Miss Seward, by Mr. Walter Scott, though it contains compositions of minor merit, yet presents us altogether with a fine collection of miscellaneous poetry. The genius of the amiable writer is very apparent in some of the pieces, which will, we trust, long do honour to her memory as one of the first literary females of the age. In her poem of 'Christina, the Maid of the South Seas,' Miss Mitford has displayed more power of description and force of sentiment, than in her miscellaneous poems. We believe that time and experience will contribute to remove the defects from which she is not yet free, which are rather the defects of a want of matured judgment than of a want of genius. In the third and fourth cantos of his poem of 'The Plants,' Mr. Tighe is entitled to the same, and indeed higher praise, than we bestowed on the first volume of that elegant work. The present volume contains more beauties and fewer faults. Mr. Walter Scott's 'Vision of Don Roderick' was undertaken from such good motives, and the profits of it are devoted to such a noble cause, that we should deem it a reflection on our patriotism, if we noticed its defects. Miss Lucy Aikin has preferred no weak nor contemptible claim to a Parnassian wreath in her *Epistles on Women*. The author of 'The Battle of Albuera' is entitled to no small share of praise for the animation and force with which he has depicted that battle so honourable to the courage of the British and their allies. Mr. Elton's 'Tales of Romance' are simple, unaffected, and entertaining.

NOVELS.

The author of 'Frederick, or Memoirs of my Youth,' has detailed a gentleman's history, through the various stages of domestic education, school, college, &c. in a lively and instructive manner; and merits much praise for the regard which he has exhibited to moral fitness in the conduct of his tale. Rich descriptions, glowing sensibility, and exuberant fancy, characterize 'The Missionary' of Miss Owenson, but mingled with numerous instances of bad taste and affectation.

MEDICINE.

Mr. Carmichael's 'Essay on the Nature of Scrofula,' contains several observations which merit attention; but he is far from having discovered a specific for the cure of that afflicting malady. Some facts, which are novel and important, and much ingenious reasoning, are to be found in Dr. Latham's work on Diabetes.

MISCELLANEOUS.

The 'Essays, literary and miscellaneous,' of Doctor Alkin, if they do not make any addition to, will not cause any deduction from, the fame of that elegant writer. His 'Essay on Similes' has engaged a good deal of our attention in our number for May. Dr. Drake's 'Essays, biographical, critical, and historical, illustrative of the Rambler,' &c. &c. are rather a desultory, but not an unamusing work. M. Appert's book, entitled 'The Art of preserving all Kinds of animal and vegetable Substances for several years,' is well worthy the studious attention of every mistress of a family. Taste, knowledge, and good sense, are combined in the 'Three Lectures on Engraving' by the late Mr. Meadows. The ingenious and amusing miscellany entitled 'Salmagundi, or the Whim-whams and Opinions of Launcelot Langstaff, Esq.' &c. will furnish considerable insight into the customs, manners, and tastes of our North American brethren. Folly and extravagance appear not to be confined to this side of the Atlantic; and absurdity exhibits her diversified modes in New York as well as in London. Mr. Barron Field's 'Analysis of Blackstone's Commentaries on the Laws of England, in a series of questions,' will be found of considerable use to the English student, and might be turned to good account in our public schools and universities.

ALPHABETICAL INDEX

TO THE

AUTHORS' NAMES AND TITLES OF BOOKS.

- ABSTRACT** Reasoners on Bullion, Coins, &c. Replication to all the Theorists and, 105
- Adventures of Ulysses.** By Mendham, 108
- Address to the practical Farmers of Great Britain,** 111
- African Institution, Report of the Directors of the,** 437
- Age; or, the Consolations of Philosophy,** 442
- Aikin's Essays,** 67. On Similies, 67
- Aikin's Epistles on Women,** 418
- Albuera, Battle of,** 443
- Alvara Florez, Estrada's Constitution for the Spanish Nation,** 158
- Analysis of Blackstone's Commentaries,** 397
- Anecdotes of the Manners and Customs of London, from the Roman Invasion to the Year 1700, including the Origin of British Society, Customs, and Manners, with a general Sketch of the State of Religion, Superstition, Dresses, and Amusements of the Citizens of London during that Period.** 279
- Anecdotes. Sentimentales, par Madame de Montolieu,** 484
- Animals which furnish Wool, and particularly on the Race of Merinos, Tessier's Memoir upon,** 495
- Apollonius of Tyana, Life of,** 79.
- Apollonius born at Tyana, a Town of Cappadocia, about the beginning of the first Century, 81. At the Age of Sixteen he becomes a strict Observer of the Pythagorean Doctrines, ib. An Instance of his Powers of Persuasion, 83. At Ninus he forms an Acquaintance with Dams, who becomes his fellow-traveller and, Disciple, 85. His Address to the Satrap, who presented him a golden Image, to which he was to do Homage, 85. His Arrival at Taxis, the Residence of Phraotes, 89. His Introduction to Iarchas, the Chief of the Indian Brahmins, 91. Conduct of Apollonius in Athens, 93. At Lacedemon, 95. At Rome, 96.**
- Appert's Art of Preserving all Kinds of animal and vegetable Substances for several Years,** 197
- Architecture Naval, Mode to effect Improvements in,** 106
- Attempt to estimate the Increase of the Number of Poor during the Interval of 1782 and 1803,** 105
- BAKER'S Peregrinations of the Mind, through the most general and interesting Subjects usually agitated in Life,** 219
- Barrister's Tour in quest of Genealogy,** 220
- Barry's Works, 18. Inconsistency and Bigotry of the Archbishop of Canterbury and Bishop of London, 19. Barry's Offer to the Society of Arts and Sciences,** 19
- Battle of Albuera,** 443
- Bayles's Sorrows of Eliza,** 109
- Beginners, School Cyphering Book for,** 447
- Berwick's Life of Apollonius Tyaneus, vide Apollonius**
- Biographical Notices of the most celebrated Generals of foreign Nations, from 1792 to 1810,** 494
- Blackstone's Commentaries, Analysis of,** 397
- Bliss's Microcosmography; or, a piece of the World discovered, in Essays and Characters,** 220
- Bolaffey's Aleph-Beth,** 110
- Book-keeping, Treatise on,** 447
- Book for Beginners, School Cyphering,** 447
- Bowdler's Fragments of Miss Smith,** 149
- Brief Statement of the Proceedings in Parliament in the last and present Session, upon the several Bills introduced, with a View to the Amendment of the Criminal Law,** 164
- Britain, Moleville's History of Great,** 309

INDEX.

- British Reader, Guy's New, 446
 Bullion Debate, by Pitt, 443
 Byerley's Translation of Machiavel, 124
- CAPRICCIO, apoeitical Romance, 109
 Carew's Survey of Cornwall, 168
 Quarry Miracles, 171. Hurling and Wrestling, 172
 Carmichael's Essay on the Nature of Scrofula, with Evidence of its Origin in the Disorder of the Digestive Organs, 27
 Carmina Selecta, tam Græci, tam Latini, Richardi Pauli Jodrell Junioris, quorum omnia fere intra annum ætatis decimum octavum Alumnus Scholæ Etonensis conscripsit, 204
 Carnot's Defence of fortified Places, 540
 Catholic Question, Dillon's Memoirs upon, 150
 Casteau's Travels in Germany and Sweden, vide Germany
 Chalcographia, by Hassell, 219
 Chandler's Life of Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, 426
 Charlemont, Hardy's political Life of the Earl of, 1
 Chateaufeu's biographical Notices of the most celebrated Generals of foreign Nations, 495
 Chaucer and Gower, Todd's Illustrations of the Lives and Writings of, 33
 Children and young Persons of the middle Ranks, Familiar Letters addressed to, 222
 Christina, a Poem, 265
 Clarke's Sketches of Sentiment on several important theological Subjects, 325
 College, Refutation of M^r Callum's Remarks on the Royal Military, 104
 Commentaries, Field's Analysis of Blackstone's, 397
 Commentary on the Treatment of Ruptures, particularly in a State of Strangulation, 195
 Companion, Merchants' and Artificers', 216
 Consolations of Philosophy, Age; or, the, 442
 Constitution for the Spanish Nation, presented to the supreme Junta of Spain and the Indies, 158
 Contemplatist, a Series of Essays upon Morals and Literature, by Mudford, 217
 Cornwall, Carew's Survey of, 168
 Crown, Inquiry into the supposed Increase of the Influence of the, 102
 Cure de Wakefield, 216
 Cutting for the Stone, Essay on, 332
 Cyphering Book for Beginners, School, 447
- DEBATE, Bullion, 443
 De Boisgelin's Travels through Denmark and Sweden, vide Denmark. Defence of fortified Places, Carnot's Defence of, 540
 Denmark and Sweden, de Boisgelin's Travels through, 238
 Depository of the French Scholar, 223
 Devotional Hymns, sacred Meditations, and 100
 Devotional and doctrinal Extracts from Epistles of the yearly Meetings in London, 102
 Diabetes, Facts and Opinions concerning, 386
 Dillon's Memoirs upon the Catholic Question, 150
 Directors of the African Institution, Report of the, 437
 Dissenters, Remarks on the Resolutions passed at a general Meeting of Protestant, 211
 Don Roderick, Vision of, 338
 Drake's Essays, illustrative of the Rambler, Adventurer, and Idler, &c. 177
 Duval, Lettres d'Emilie de Montvers et de Pauline de Castellane, par Madame, 483
- ECLOGUES Spanish, by Hispanicus, 107
 Education, first Lines of a System of, 216
 Elements of Reform, 104
 Eliza, Sorrows of, by Bayles, 109
 Elton's Tales of Romance, 393
 Empire of the Nairs, or the Rights of Women, 399
 English Language, New Grammar of the, 446
 Engraving, Meadow's three Lectures on, 275
 Epistle of St. Paul to the Romans paraphrased, 324
 Epistles on Women, Aikin's, 418
 Essay on Similes, Aikin's, 67
 Essays, illustrative of the Rambler, Adventurer, and Idler, and of the various periodical Papers, which in imitation of the Writings of Steele and Addison, have been published between the close of the

INDEX.

- Eighth Volume of the Spectator, and the commencement of the Year 1800, 177
 Essays upon Morals and Literature, Series of, 217
 Essays on Man, by Finch, 221
 Essays, Stewart's Philosophical, vide Stewart.
 Essay on Cutting for the Stone, by Trye, 332
 Evangelical Religion restored, Pure, 209
 Europe, Ode on the present State of, 230
 FABER'S Sketches of the internal State of France, vide France.
 Facts and Opinions concerning Diabetes, 386
 Familiar Letters, addressed to Children and young Persons of the middle Ranks, 222
 Farmers of Great Britain, Address to the, 111
 Field's Analysis of Blackstone's Commentaries, 397
 Fifth Report of the Directors of the African Institution, 437
 Finch's Essays on Man, 221
 First Lines of a System of Education, 216
 Fontaine's New Arcadia, 471
 Foote's Life of Murphy, 263
 Fortified Places, Carnot's Defence of, 540
 Fragments of Miss Smith, Bowdler's, 140
 France, Faber's Sketches of the internal State of, 403. Character of the different Public Functionaries, 404. Political Degradation of the French, ib. Deplorable State of Religious Instruction, 405. Endeavours of Bonaparte to cover the New Order of Things with the exterior of the Ancient Regime, 407. Institution of the Lyceums, 409. Duties on Registration, 411. Remarks on the acquittal of Moreau, 413. Rapidity with which Bonaparte performs his Journeys, 416
 Frederic, or Memoirs of myself, a Novel, 130
 French Scholar's Depository, by Lindley, 223
 GENEALOGY, Tour in quest of, 220
 Geoghegan's Commentary on the Treatment of Raptures, particularly in a State of Strangulation, 195
 Germany and Sweden, Cateau's Travels in, 498. Foundation of the House of Brunswick, 469.
 The Garden of Herrenhausen, interesting from having been the place where Leibnitz was fond of meditating, 501. The Banks of the Rhine, the Cradle of the Arts, 503
 Grace Triumphant, 496
 Graffenauer's Letters, 480. Memorial of the celebrated George Forster, one of the Companions of Captain Cook, 481. Misery of the Polish Peasantry, 482
 Gower and Chaucer, Todd's Illustrations of the Lives and Writings of, 133
 Grammar French Preparatory, 223
 Grammar of the English Language, New, 446
 Great Britain, Address to the Farmers of, 111
 Guy's New British Reader, 446
 Guineas, &c. Lord King's Speech respecting, 326
 HAAFFNER'S Voyages and Travels in the Western Peninsula of India, and in the Island of Ceylon, 486
 Halpin's University Prize Poem, 214
 Hardy's Memoirs of the political and private Life of James Caulfield, Earl of Charlemont, vide Charlemont.
 Hassell's Chalcographia, 219
 Heyne's Homer, vide Homeri Carmina.
 Hispanicus's Spanish Eclogues, 189
 History of the Revolution of Spain, Introduction to the, 104
 Historical and Critical Essay on the Life of Petrarch, 290
 History of the Italian Republics, Sismondi's, 517
 Histoire des Révolutions de Perse, pendant la durée du dix-huitième siècle de l'ère Chrétienne, vide Perse.
 Homeri Carmina cum brevi Annotatione, 449. Sentiments respecting Heyne, the German Editor, 451. Of the Latin Translations of Homer, 456. Of his Prosody, 458
 Hutchinson's Letters to the Commissioners for Transports, &c. 333
 Hymns, Sacred Meditations and Devotional, 4100

INDEX.

- ILLUSTRATIONS** of the Lives and Writings of Gower and Chaucer, 33
- Improvements in Naval Architecture, Narrative of a Mode to effect,** 106
- Increase of the Influence of the Crown, &c. Inquiry into the supposed,** 102
- Increase of the Poor during the interval of 1782 and 1803,** 105
- India, and in the Island of Ceylon, Haafner's Voyages and Travels in the Western Peninsula of,** 486
- Indies, Tombe's Voyage to the East,** 565
- Institution, Report of the Directors of the African,** 427
- Introduction to the History of the Revolution of Spain, by Alvaro Florez Estrada,** 104
- Iphottelle; or, the Longing Fit,** 213
- Italian Republics, Sismondi's History of the, vide Republics.**
- JACOB's Travels in the South of Spain, vide Spain.**
- Jervis's Sermons,** 101
- LACE'S Ode on the present State of Europe,** 330
- Lambert's Salmagundi.**
- La Nouvelle Arcadie,** 471
- Language, New Grammar of the English,** 446
- Latham's Facts and Opinions concerning Diabetes,** 386
- Layman's Sacred Meditations and Devotional Hymns,** 100
- Lawrence's Empire of the Nairs,** 399
- Letters Familiar, addressed to Children and young Persons of the middle Ranks,** 222
- Lettres d'Emilie de Montvers et de Pauline de Castellane, par Madame Duval,** 483
- Letters to the Commissioners for Transports, &c. by Hutchinson,** 333
- Letters written in Germany, Prussia, and Poland, in the Years 1805, 6, 7, and 8,** 480
- Liberty, a Sermon, Religious,** 323
- Lindley's French Scholar's Depository,** 223
- Lindley's Preparatory French Grammar,** 223
- Lines of a System of Education, First,** 216
- Literature, Series of Essays upon Morals and,** 217
- London, Malcolm's Anecdotes of the Manners and Customs of,** 279
- London, Quakers yearly Meetings in,** 102
- M'CALLUM'S Remarks on the Royal Military College, Refutation of,** 104
- Machiavelli, Byerley's Translation of,** 124
- Malcolm's Anecdotes of the Manners and Customs of London, vide London.**
- Man, Essays on,** 221
- Mann's present Picture of New South Wales, vide Wales.**
- Mason's Observations on Parliamentary Reform,** 439
- Meadow's Three Lectures on Engravings,** 275
- Meditations and Devotional Hymns, Sacred,** 100
- Meeting of Protestant Dissenters, Remarks on the Resolutions passed at a general,** 211
- Meetings in London, Quaker's yearly,** 102
- Memoirs on the Catholic Question, Dil on's,** 150
- Memoirs of the political and private Life of James Caulfield, vide Charlemont.**
- Mendham's Adventures of Ulysses,** 108
- Merchants' and Artificers' Companion,** 216
- Merinos, Tessier's Memoir upon Animals, and particularly upon the Race of,** 495
- Mind, Peregrinations of the,** 219
- Missionary, an Indian Tale, Owen-son's,** 182
- Mitford's Christina, the Maid of the South Seas,** 265
- Mode to effect Improvements in Naval Architecture, Narrative of a,** 106
- Modern Persecution, a Poem,** 331
- Moleville's History of Great Britain,** 302
- Money, Theory of,** 369
- Monk and the Vine Dresser,** 215
- Montolieu's Sentimental Anecdotes,** 484
- Morals and Literature, Series of Essays upon,** 217
- Murphy, Foote's Life of,** 253
- NAIRS, Lawrence's Empire of the,** 399
- Narrative of a Mode to effect Im-**

INDEX.

- Improvements and Naval Architecture, by Gower, and ... 106
 New British Reader, by Guy, 446
 New Grammar of the English Language, 446
 Notices of the most celebrated Generals of foreign Nations, Charlevoix's biographical, 494
 OBSERVATIONS on parliamentary Reform, by Massey, 439
 Ode on the present State of Europe, by Loe, 380
 Ophioprop, the Theology of the Serpent, 433
 Original Sonnets, and other Poems, 441
 Ontologia, 385
 Owenson's Missionary, an Indian Tale, 482
 PARLIAMENTARY Reform, Observations on, 439
 People, 329
 Peregrinations of the Mind, by Baker, 219
 Perse, Histoire des Révolutions de, 462
 Persecution, a Poem, modern, 331
 Petrarch, an historical and critical Essay on the Life of, 290
 Pharmacopœiarum Collegiorum regium Londini, &c., 335
 Philosophy, Age; or, the Consolations of, 442
 Philosophical Essays, Stewart's, vide Stewart
 Philostratus' Life of Apollonius, Translated by Berwick, vide Apollonius
 Picault's Revolutions of Persia, vide Persé
 Piece of the World discovered, in Essays and Characters, by Bliss, 220
 Picture of New South Wales, Mann's present, vide Wales
 Pitt's Bullion Debate, 443
 Plain Statement of some of the most important Principles of Religion, by Warton, 101
 Plants, a Poem, 309
 Poem, University Prize, 214
 Poetical Capriccio, Romance, 109
 Political and private Life of the Earl of Charlemont, vide Charlemont
 Polwhele's Sermons, 199
 Poor during the interval of 1782 and 1803, Increase of the, 105
 Preparatory French Grammar, by Lindley, 223
 Prince, Byerley's Translation of, 124
 Principles of Religion, plain Statement of some important, 101
 Prize Poem, University, 214
 Protestant Dissenters, Remarks on the Resolutions passed at a general Meeting of, 211
 Pure Evangelical Religion restored, 209
 QUAKERS, yearly Meetings in London, 102
 Question, Dillon's Memoirs on the Catholic, 150
 RANBY'S Inquiry into the supposed Increase of the Influence of the Crown, &c., 102
 Reader, Guy's New British, 446
 Reform, Observations on parliamentary, 439
 Refutation of M'Callum's Remarks on the Royal Military College, 104
 Reform, Elements of, 101
 Religion, Plain Statement of some important Principles of, 101
 Religion, Triumphs of, 215
 Religion restored, Pure Evangelical, 209
 Religious Liberty, a Sermon, 323
 Remarks on the Resolutions passed at a general Meeting of Protestant Dissenters, 211
 Remarks on the Royal Military College, Refutation of M'Callum's, 104
 Replication to all the Theorists and Abstract Reasoners on Bullion, Coins, &c., 105
 Roderic, Scott's Vision of Don, 338
 Romance, a poetical Capriccio, 109
 Romance, Elton's Tales of, 393
 Roman's paraphrased, St. Paul's Epistle to the, 324
 Raptures, particularly, in a State of Strangulation, Geoghegan's Commentary on the Treatment of, 195
 SALMAGUNDI, 316
 Sacred Meditations and Devotional Hymns, by Layman, 100
 Scholar's Depository, French, 223
 School Cyphering Book for Beginners, 447
 Scotland, Spence's Sketches of the present Manners, Customs, and Scenery of, 381
 Scott's Vision of Don Roderic, 338

INDEX.

Scott's Edition of Salvage's poetical Works,	332	Theocists and Abstract Reasoners on	
Scripture Characters, by Warner,		Bullion, Coins, &c. Replication to	105
Serofula, with Evidence of its Origin in disorder of the digestive Organs, Carmichael's Essay on,	27	Theory of Money, vide Money,	74
Sentiment on Theological Subjects, Sketches of,	325	Theological Subjects, Sketches of	
Serpent, Ophion; or, the Theology of the,	433	Sentiment on, &c. to avoid,	125
Sicily, its Rural Economy, Population, and Produce, particularly in the County of Modica, Vaughan's View of the present State of,	114	Tighe's Plaints, a Poem, &c.	309
Simple Pleasures, by Miss Vepning,	333	Todd's Illustrations of themselves and Writings of Gower and Chaucer, &c.	103
Siemond's History of the Italian Republics,	517	Tombe's Voyages to the East Indies, vide Indies,	
Sketches of Sentiment on several important Theological Subjects, by Clarke,	325	Tonkin's Survey of Cornwall, &c.	168
Sonnets, and other Poems, Original, &c.	441	Tour in quest of Genealogy, by a Barrister,	220
Spain, Jacob's Travels in the South of,	349	Transports, &c. Letter to the Commissioners for,	333
Spanish Eclogues, by Hispanicus,	107	Travels through Denmark and Sweden, vide Denmark,	
Spanish Nation, presented to the Supreme Junta of Spain, and the Indies, Constitution for the,	168	Treatise on Book-keeping,	447
State of Europe, Ode on the present,	330	Triumphs of Religion,	215
Stewart's Philosophical Essays,	53	Trye's Essay on Cutting for the Stone,	333
Survey of Cornwall, Carew's,	168	ULYSSES, by Mendam, Adventures of,	108
System of Education, First Lines of a,	216	University Prize Poem, by Halpin,	214
Sweden and Denmark, De Boisselins Travels through, vide Denmark.		VAUGHAN'S View of the present State of Sicily, its Rural Economy, Population, and Produce, particularly in the County of Modica, vide Sicily.	
TESSIER'S Memoir upon Animals which furnish Wool, and particularly on the Race of Merinos, containing the Method of raising good Flocks, and of increasing and preserving them in health,	495	Vine Dresser, Monk and the,	215
Theology of the Serpent, Ophion, or,	433	Vision of Don Roderic,	338
		Voyages dans la Peninsule occidentale de Pinde et dans Pile de Ceylon,	486
		WAKEFIELD, Cart de	216
		Wales, Mann's present Picture of New South,	45
		Watson's Plain Statement of some important Principles of Religion,	101
		Waynflete, Bishop of Winchester, Life of,	426
		Women, exemplifying their Character and Condition in various Ages and Nations, Aikin's Epistles on,	418
		Worgan's Poems,	141

5
f
5
a
t
3
.
8
7
0
t
3
t
7
5
e
2
s
8
.
4
t
r
.
.
5
8
t
e
6
6
f
5
e
.
1
r
6
t
s
a
8
1